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THE NEW
ANNUAL REGISTER,
OR GENERAL REPOSITORY OF
HISTORY,
POLITICS,
AND
LITERATURE,
For the YEAR 1798.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED,

The HISTORY of KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, and TASTE,
in GREAT BRITAIN, during the Reign of King CHARLES II.—
Part II.



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Printed by S. HAMILTON, Falcon-Court, Fleet-Street;
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LONDON

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P R E F A C E.

OUR readers will find in the present volume, what they will doubtless consider as a novelty in this publication, a retrospect of European politics for the year 1797.—The reasons for this arrangement will be sufficiently obvious. It is our duty, and our earnest desire, to furnish our readers with the most full and accurate information on every topic which regards the history of the present times; but the materials for such information as this are not to be collected from the public prints, nor from any common sources; they are to be sought in the cabinets of statesmen, and the port-folios of ministers. It is not always in our power to command the necessary documents in time to gratify the curiosity of our readers, nor within that period which we do not wish to exceed in bringing our annual volume before the public. This was precisely the case last year, and yet we were unwilling wholly to disappoint the public. We, therefore, produced such a sketch of the latter transactions of the

PREFACE.

year as we were able to digest from the materials that came under our inspection. In the narrative now published, under the form of a retrospect, some errors will be found to be corrected, and a fuller light thrown upon some of the most important events. We shall probably be under the necessity of occasionally adopting a similar plan during the continuance of the present war. We are confident it will render our work more valuable to posterity; nor can it be the less agreeable to such of our contemporaries as wish to know the truth.

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THE
HISTORY
OF
KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING,
AND TASTE,

IN GREAT BRITAIN,

During the Reign of KING CHARLES II.

PART II.

THE reign of Charles was inglorious in almost every instance; yet it was distinguished by the establishment of a society, which has been perhaps more respectable in its character, and more useful in its exertions than any similar institution in Europe. The humble origin* of the Royal Society has been already noticed; but it belongs to this part of our undertaking to enter more fully into the detail.

To assert that the great proficiency in natural science, which has been the glory of the British nation, is to be wholly attributed to the exertions of this association, would be bold and hazardous; but it is certain that little progress had been previously made in that interesting branch of human knowledge. Except the solitary speculations of Bacon, little had hitherto been effected; but the recommendation of that

* See our History of Knowledge, &c. under the Usurpation.

great man, to refer every thing in physics to the severe test of direct experiment, cleared the path of science, and opened the way to real discoveries.

Alchemy had been a favourite study in the two preceding reigns. The theatre, which is, in general, "a brief chronicle of the times," and the best record of manners and national character, of national folly at least, attests this fact. Johnson's *Alchemist* is read and acted, though the object of ridicule, which is the foundation of the piece, is no longer interesting.

It is however matter of surprise, that industry, even without the aid of science, should have effected nothing. Not one useful discovery is recorded as rewarding the labours of the English alchemists, though their brethren on the continent contributed in no small degree to the improvement of practical chemistry.

Even mathematical science, for which the English philosophers have since been so justly celebrated, was, antecedent to the period of which we are treating, in no very flourishing state; but the age which produced the Royal Society was also distinguished by some excellent mathematicians; and Oughtred, Ward, and Wallis, led the way to Barrow, Newton, and Halley. Thus, though classical learning, theology, and metaphysics, had been cultivated with success in the preceding ages, the reign of Charles II. may be regarded as the dawn of English philosophy.

The commencement of the Royal Society is referred by its historian Sprat to "some space after the end of the civil wars;" but more correct information affixes the date to the year 1645. At that time some ingenious and inquisitive men, among whom was the celebrated mathematician Dr. John Wallis, and the no less celebrated Dr. (afterwards bishop) Wilkins, agreed to meet weekly on a certain day, to converse on subjects of natural and experimental philosophy.

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The meetings were sometimes held at the apartments of Dr. Jonathan Goddard, a physician of some eminence, in Woodstreet, on account of his having an operator in his house for the purpose of grinding glasses for telescopes; sometimes at a house in Cheapside, and sometimes at Gresham-college. From these meetings, the great topics which at that period divided and distracted society, politics and theology, were excluded; and the sciences which chiefly engaged the attention of the society, were geometry, astronomy, anatomy, physic, chemistry, navigation, magnetism, and mechanics. This society was sometimes distinguished by the name of the Invisible or Philosophical College.

The society in this infant state experienced something of the unsettled nature of the times; and about the year 1648 it was nearly dissolved by the removal of Dr. Wilkins, who was appointed warden of Wadham-college; of Dr. Wallis, who was nominated Savilian professor of geometry; and of Dr. Goddard, who was made warden of Merton-college. Those who remained in London continued to meet as before, and the Oxford members joined them when they visited the metropolis. The meetings, however, were continued with more spirit, and, probably, more regularity at Oxford, "in Dr. Wilkins' lodgings (to use the words of Sprat) in Wadham-college, which was then the resort for virtuous and learned men." The university, as the same author informs us, had several men of eminence at that time attached to it in various offices and stations; and it was resorted to by others, whom the distresses of the times drove to take refuge from the din of arms, and the detestable contests of party and politics, in the quiet shades of that celebrated seminary. Their first object was, as it had been in London, to enjoy society in peace, to contribute to each other's mutual entertainment and instruction, and to avoid those unpleasing topics which spread only discord and calamity wherever they were agitated. The principal persons who formed this small but illustrious assembly, were Dr. Seth Ward, afterwards lord-bishop of Exeter, Mr. Boyle, sir William Petty, Dr. Wil-

kins, Mr. Matthew Wren, Dr. Wallis, Dr. Goddard, Dr. Willis; Dr. Christopher Wren, and Mr. Rooke.

These meetings, however, were still little more than social or conversation parties. They had no rules or fixed method of proceeding; yet experimental science engaged more deeply their attention than speculation and conjecture. The folly of both of these was too apparent in the metaphysical writers of the day for wise men, such as constituted this little society, to engage themselves in. They were more commonly employed in experiments of chemistry and mechanics. Their instruments, however, were few; and their discoveries in chemistry seem to have been of little importance.

In the year 1658, the society was dispersed from various causes, and its members were called to the exercise of different functions in different parts of the kingdom. The majority of them, however, had returned to the metropolis; and here their meetings were resumed at Gresham-college, an institution at present shamefully abused, by being made a singeure for idle and indeed merely nominal professors. They generally met at the Wednesday's and Thursday's lectures of Dr. Wren and Mr. Rooke, for such were the men who, at that period, occupied these stations. Here they were joined by several other eminent persons, among whom were the lords Bacon, and Bacon, Sir Paul Drury, Mr. John Evelyn, Mr. Henshaw, Mr. Smith, Dr. Timothy Clark, Dr. Ent. Mr. Bask, Mr. Hall, and Dr. Crane. The calamities of the times again dispersed our philosophers; and even the place of their meeting was, in the year 1659, converted into a barracks for soldiers.

The meetings were resumed when the public affairs assumed a more quiet aspect after the restoration, and they were joined by a great number of persons eminent in every branch of science. The accession of new members obliged them now to think of adopting some regular mode of conducting their debates; and, in a private conversation, on the

28th of November, 1660, between lord Brouncker, Mr. Boyle, Mr. Bruce, sir Robert Moray, sir Paul Neile, Dr. Wilkins, Dr. Goddard, Dr. Petty, Mr. Balle, Mr. Wren, and Mr. Hill, the first idea was suggested of forming a regular college for the promotion of physico-mathematical and experimental science. As a preliminary to such a measure, a set of regulations were drawn up, simple and plain, adapted to the character of the men, and the frugal manners of the age. The meetings were to be continued weekly, at *three o'clock in the afternoon*, during term time, in Mr. Roocke's chamber at Gretham-college; and, in the vacation, at Mr. Balle's in the Temple. An admission-fine of *ten shillings* was levied on each of the members, who also engaged to contribute, at the rate of *one shilling* a week, whether present or absent, towards the expenses of the institution. A list of additional members was, at the same time, given in, among whom we find the names of sir Kenelm Digby, Mr. Evelyn, celebrated for his attention to the practical and philosophical part of botany, and Cowley the poet, who had been created a doctor of physic at Oxford in the year 1637.

Thus the society continued to prosecute, with a most laudable zeal and industry, every branch of useful knowledge. The experiments, as Spirit informs us, were made by themselves, or at least repeated, whenever the results were communicated from a distance. It was at first determined not to increase the number of the members; and the stated number was fixed at fifty-five; but this order was afterwards judiciously rescinded. It was also resolved, that no person should be admitted to the society without a scrutiny, in which the candidate should have the votes of at least two-thirds of the members present, except such as were of or above the degree of a baron; and all such were to be admitted, at their desire, as supernumeraries, provided they conformed to the rules of the society. The same privilege was afterwards extended to the fellows of the College of Physicians, in consequence of the college indulging them with the use of their hall.

On the 5th of December, sir Robert Moray informed the society that the king had been made acquainted with the design of the meeting; that his majesty had signified his approbation, and was desirous of giving it encouragement. About the same time it was resolved, that the standing offices of the society should be three in number, a president or director, a treasurer, and a register—the former to be chosen monthly, and the two latter to continue in office for the space of a year. Two servants, with salaries, were also appointed, an amanuensis, and an operator.—The salary of the former was forty shillings *per annum*, and of the latter four pounds.

As a specimen of their proceedings in this infant state, it may not be unpleasant to the reader to mention that the subjects which chiefly engaged their attention at this period were a series of experiments on pendulums, by Dr. (afterwards sir Christopher) Wren; experiments for the improvement of shipping, under the direction of Dr. Petty, Dr. Goddard, Dr. Wilkins, and Dr. Wren; an experiment on the recoiling of guns by lord Brouncker; and a series of queries were drawn up by the same nobleman, in conjunction with Mr. Boyle, and sent to Teneriffe, chiefly relating to experiments for measuring the height and examining the atmosphere and climate of the Peak. His majesty, about the same time, sent two loadstones to be examined by the society; Dr. Goddard produced some chemical experiments on coloured fluids, produced from fluids nearly or altogether colourless; and Mr. Evelyn, some curious observations on the anatomy of trees, which were followed by a discourse of sir Kenelme Digby on the vegetation of plants.

The society, however, did not confine its attention to subjects of mere philosophy, but extended it to the arts and manufactures. Besides the experiments on shipping, already noticed, Dr. Petty produced a series of observations on the cloathing-trade: experiments were also made on refining, japanning, gilding, and other arts. Among other phænomena produced before the society, was a young man born deaf and dumb,

dumb, and taught by the celebrated Wallis to speak plainly. The doctor, with some humour, describes this occupation, in a letter to Mr. Oldenburg.—“ I am now employed,” says he, “ upon another work, as hard, almost, as to make Mr. Hobbes understand mathematics. It is to teach a person dumb and deaf to speak, and to understand a language,” &c.

From this specimen of its proceedings, the reader will perceive that the society was not less diligent or flourishing previous to its incorporation, than it has been at any subsequent period. Some persons have in truth doubted, whether this circumstance has been, or not, of real service to the society; but it must be remembered, that though not of actual use, it may have been productive of eventual good. It served, probably, to preserve the unity of the society, and to prevent it from breaking into different clubs or assemblies. It also gave it some consequence in the eyes of the public, and of foreign nations; and possibly contributed at once to its respectability and permanence. The act of incorporation passed the great seal on the 15th of July, 1662.—The only alteration of importance in the regulations of the society was, that the elections were made annual; William lord viscount Brouncker was appointed the first president; sir Robert Moray, Mr. Boyle, Mr. (afterwards lord) Brereton, sir Kenelme Digby, sir Paul Neile, Mr. H. Slingsby, sir William Petty, Dr. Wallis, Dr. Clarke, Dr. Wilkins, Dr. Ent, Mr. Aerikine, Dr. Goddard, Dr. Christopher Wren, Mr. Balle, Mr. Matthew Wren, Mr. Evelyn, Mr. Henshaw, Mr. Dudley Palmer, Mr. Oldenburg, were nominated of the council; and of these Mr. Balle was appointed treasurer, and Dr. Wilkins and Mr. Oldenburg the first secretaries. Such was the rise, progress, and establishment of this respectable society.—We shall now return to give a short account of the state of science in its various branches at this period so propitious to the cause of philosophy in general.

Among the mathematicians of the age, the first place is generally assigned to Dr. John Wallis. He was the son of
a clergy-

a clergyman at Ailford in Kent, and was educated at Emmanuel college, Cambridge. He was chosen fellow of Queen's, in 1645, then being no more in his own college, and about the same time entered into holy orders. He was eminent for having discovered the art of deciphering, and incurred some scandal after the restoration, for having deciphered the letters of King Charles, which were taken in the cabinet at Naseby. In 1644 he acted as one of the secretaries to the assembly of divines at Westminster, and in 1649 was appointed Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford. While he continued in this station, he had a mathematical controversy with Mr Hobbes, who, however, was but a weak antagonist, opposed to Wallis. His mathematical works were considered of so much importance to science, that in the year 1699 they were collected, and published in Latin, by the university of Oxford, in three volumes, folio, and dedicated to king William. He was not only eminent as a mathematician, but published some excellent works on language, the study of which led him from theory to undertake the arduous task of teaching the dumb to speak: of his services and reputation in the Royal Society we have already treated.

Next in reputation to Wallis was Dr. Seth Ward. He was born in Hertfordshire, and educated at Sidney college, Cambridge; he was patronised warmly by Dr. Samuel Ward, then master of that college, though he was not related to him. On the commencement of the civil wars, Mr. Seth Ward voluntarily became an affiliate in the misfortunes of his friends, whom he accompanied to prison, and continued with him till his death; he was also ejected from his fellowship for refusing the covenant. After leaving college, he resided some time with the rector of Upton, at Aldbury in Surry, where he prosecuted his mathematical studies with such success as laid the foundation of his future eminence. On the hopes of the royalist party being extinguished, Mr Ward became more accommodating to the times, and from his great reputation as a mathematician he
was

was appointed Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, in the room of the celebrated Greaves, distinguished for his work on the Egyptian pyramids, who was ejected, but who had sufficient influence to recommend Mr. Ward to be his successor. Ward then entered himself of Wadham-college, from respect to Dr. Wilkins, who was the warden. After the restoration, he was successively appointed bishop of Exeter and of Salisbury. As a divine, we have before spoken of him with commendation; as a mathematician, his excellence is still acknowledged. Mr. Oughtred says, he was the first man in Cambridge who expounded his *Clavis Mathematica*, which he republished, with additions, at the importunate desire of the author.

Besides these, we may mention, as men scarcely less eminent, the extraordinary bishop Wilkins, and sir Christopher Wren, of whose character we shall afterwards have occasion to treat, when we come to speak of an art which was peculiarly his own, and in which his reputation yet remains without a rival.

The same æra which produced the Royal Society was distinguished by the invention of an instrument which has been of great importance in natural and experimental philosophy, we mean the *air-pump*. It was the invention of the honourable Robert Boyle, who was assisted in perfecting the mechanical part of it by the ingenious Mr. Robert Hooke, so eminent afterwards for his microscopical experiments. Independent of this noble invention, there is, perhaps, not any name which deserves to stand higher in the records of English philosophy than that of Boyle.—He gave a new turn to the researches of chemistry, and directed it, from the absurdities of the alchemists, to the views and purposes of sound philosophy. His experiments on air laid the foundation for that system which is now generally received with respect to the general properties of that, and indeed of all other elastic fluids. The soundness of his judgment rendered him superior to all the tinsel of false philosophy.—He was as ad-
verie

verse to the jargon of Aristotle as to the reveries of the alchemists, and defined that fashionable philosophy as "having in it more of words than of things, promising much, and performing little."—His observations on colours were useful preliminaries to that beautiful system which was afterwards perfected by the genius of Newton. There was, in short, scarcely an interesting topic of natural philosophy which did not engage the attention of this indefatigable inquirer, and scarcely any which he did not improve. His tracts in defence of the Christian religion are not the least valuable of his writings; and, indeed, in every respect, his whole life was devoted to the glory of God, and the benefit and instruction of his fellow-creatures. He may, with justice, be regarded as the father of modern philosophy.

After the name of Boyle we may mention that of sir Knelme Digby—

"Digby the great, the valiant, and the wise."

A man of a genius as active, and of acquirements as universal almost as those which are ascribed to the famous Pico, prince of Mirandola. His philosophy was not, however, the cool and temperate reasoning of Boyle.—It was mingled too much with imagination, and his superstitious zeal in favour of his "Sympathetic Powder," which was to be a cure for almost all diseases, has fixed a blot on his character, which has rendered his philosophical publications less objects of general attention than they deserve.

Sir William Petty is chiefly known for his great and acknowledged skill in political arithmetic; yet, even this was one of the least of his accomplishments. Perhaps no man, not excepting the late Dr. Franklin, ever possessed a mind so happily adapted to practical and useful science; and, indeed, he was not only one of the most extraordinary men of his age, but that Britain ever produced. Like the man, whom, in modern times, he most resembled, Franklin, he was the son of a plain tradesman, and was born at Rumsey
in

in Hampshire. At a very early age he displayed an uncommon genius for mechanics ; but after his grammar education, and some subsequent instruction at the university of Caen in Normandy, he was appointed to a situation in the navy.—But before he had arrived at the age of twenty, having saved about sixty pounds, upon the strength of this sum he set out to travel for his improvement ; and after spending three years abroad, and maintaining all the time his younger brother, such was his great œconomy and industry, that he returned to England with ten pounds more than he took with him. About this time he invented an instrument for double writing, by which the operator was enabled to produce an accurate copy of a manuscript, while in the act of writing the original. This instrument has since been more successfully employed in the art of drawing and designing. After this, he removed to Oxford, and in 1649 was created a doctor of physic. He was soon after appointed physician to the army, and was also physician to three successive lord-lieutenants of Ireland. This profession, however, he afterwards abandoned, and, on the division of the forfeited estates in Ireland, was appointed to take the surveys, which he did with singular accuracy, and gained considerable property by his services on this occasion. After the restoration, he was in considerable favour with government ; received the honour of knighthood, and was a member both in the English and Irish parliaments.—The object which most engaged his attention at this period was, how to improve the arts of ship-building and navigation ; and he constructed a vessel to sail against wind and tide. To enumerate his various experiments and discoveries would occupy more of the volume than we usually appropriate to this division of our work. He was one of the founders and one of the most active members of the Royal Society ; and yet, while so much of his time was devoted to science, his private business was more than most men would be able to conduct : it consisted in the management of a large estate, both in lands and buildings, in working of mines, and a considerable trade in lead, iron, and fish. His labours were crowned with extraordinary success.—He died

died at the age of sixty-five, possessed of immense property, and was the founder of a noble family, in which genius as well as patriotism seems to be hereditary.

Among the philosophers of this age we may class most of those who have been already noticed as the founders of the Royal Society, particularly bishop Wilkins, and Mr. Hooke, the friend and assistant of the illustrious Boyle.

It may, perhaps, be information to those of the present day, who assume a name, of the real import of which they are essentially ignorant, that these *real philosophers* were Christians. Their learning was united with its natural concomitant modesty. They did not apologise for vice and impiety, because they loved to practise them: they did not cavil at the scriptures, while ignorant of the very languages in which these scriptures were composed; or deny the God of Nature, while they were totally unacquainted with all Nature's operations. Their philosophy was not rhapsody and wild conjecture; it was the philosophy of fact and experiment. Their labours were directed to the welfare of society, and not to its undoing; they were the friends of religion, of order and good government, because they were the friends of virtue and of truth *.

* Sprat's History of the Royal Society; Birch's History of the same; Rapin's History of England; Biographia Brit.; Biographical Dict. &c. &c.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN

HISTORY

For the Year 1798.

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For the Year 1798.

CHAPTER I.

Great Britain. State of Public Affairs previous to the Meeting of Parliament. Secession of the Whig Members. Observations on that Circumstance. His Majesty's Speech. Debate on the Address—In the House of Lords—In the House of Commons. Debates on the Negotiation at Lisle—In the House of Lords—In the House of Commons.

FROM the commencement of the French Revolution, every succeeding year has been replete with new and extraordinary incidents; the circle of civil anarchy has gradually extended; state after state has been swallowed up in the vortex; and a general ruin has seemed to impend over the face of Europe. The British empire, of all the adjacent states, had alone enjoyed domestic tranquillity, till the year 1798 brought the calamity within our own borders; and where French arms could not conquer, French principles had almost been victorious. Though less interesting, perhaps, to the rest of Europe, the annals of the present year are certainly important to Englishmen, and, when detailed by the pen of candour, we trust they will be found not wanting in instruction.

Our last volume closed with an event, which every friend to hu-

manity must deeply regret, the abrupt termination of the negotiation at Lisle. Between that time and the meeting of the British parliament a very short period intervened, in which not a circumstance occurred which is deserving the notice of the historian. On the opening of the session on the 2d of Nov. 1797, the friends of liberty could not fail to regret that the benches of opposition appeared almost completely deserted. The memorable secession, which had taken place towards the conclusion of the preceding session, was still religiously observed by the most distinguished leaders of the whig party; and even the ministers themselves regretted, that the nation was deprived at this momentous crisis of that assistance which their brilliant talents might have afforded to their country.

In answer to the charge of a dereliction

religion of their duty, it has been urged, with plausibility at least, that the violent state of party politics rendered such a measure indispensable on the part of opposition. "In times when every man who censured the measures of administration was regarded as in league with the enemy, for what end, it was argued, should we incur so black a censure? If we declare our sentiments, we are proclaimed as the enemies of our king; if we tacitly acquiesce in the measures of the minister, we voluntarily take upon us a share of the responsibility. We have done our utmost to prevent the war; we have urged repeatedly the necessity of bringing it to a speedy termination; we have not persuaded our opponents—events must now take their natural course—we cannot aid with counsel, it shall not be said that we embarrass by opposition."

The first topic alluded to in the speech from the throne, was that which naturally engaged the attention of every man interested in the welfare of his country. "His majesty expressed his sincere concern that his endeavours to restore peace had been rendered ineffectual. The public declaration, and the papers laid before them, had fully proved that every step had been taken on his part to accelerate its conclusion; and the long delay and final rupture of the negotiation were, he added, to be ascribed solely to the evasive conduct, inordinate ambition, and, above all, to the inveterate animosity of the enemy against these kingdoms."

"His majesty professed to have the fullest reliance (under Providence) on the magnanimity and courage of a free people, sensible that they were contending for their best interests, and determined to render themselves worthy of the

blessings they were struggling to preserve.

"Compelled as we were by necessity to persevere in the war, till a pacific spirit prevailed on the part of the enemy, we had the satisfaction of knowing that we possessed means and resources proportioned to the objects which were at stake; that during the period of hostilities, and under the pressure of accumulated burdens, our revenues had continued highly productive, our national industry had been extended, and our commerce had surpassed its customary limits.

"The public spirit had been eminently displayed: the troops of every description had acquired the admiration of their country; and the successes of the navy had been crowned by the decisive victory of admiral lord Duncan.

"The state of the war, joined to the happy consequences of our recent success, would admit of some diminution of expense, consistent with the vigorous efforts which our situation required. In considering the best mode of defraying that expense which would still be unavoidable, it was necessary to bear in mind, that the present crisis demanded the most spirited exertions, and the value of temporary sacrifices could be only estimated by comparing it with the importance of supporting public credit, and convincing the enemy that we were able to continue the contest as long as it might be needful for maintaining the safety, honour, and independence of these kingdoms."

In the house of lords, the earl of Glasgow moved the address: in examining his majesty's speech, and the declaration which had preceded it, he said it was most clearly apparent, that our sovereign had been actuated all along by principles of justice and moderation.

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Those documents pointed out the malignant and insidious conduct of the enemy throughout the whole of the war; this conduct it was, on their part, which left it no longer in the power of his majesty to indulge his beneficent inclinations towards peace; and in pursuit of this object he had gone as far as was compatible with the safety of his people, and the dignity of his crown. Much as that event was to be desired, his lordship hoped that there was yet spirit enough in the country not to accept it at the price of the honour of the British empire. His majesty had himself proposed a treaty for peace to the enemy; and after it was abruptly terminated, he had taken the first opportunity of renewing it, and with the most earnest solicitude for that event, directed his minister to continue at Lisle as long as possible, namely, till a positive order from the directory obliged him to return.

From this review, it was obvious, that the prolongation of the war was to be attributed solely to the ambition of France. What, in truth, was the avowed state of the negotiation so lately terminated? The enemy had required a restitution of all the conquests our valour had achieved, and this, not as the price of peace, but negotiation? Such, with their pretended candour, were the terms they had the hardihood to propose; so that we, who had every thing to give and nothing to receive, must resign all as a preliminary to treaty! By this procedure we were called upon to surrender our national dignity: and if these were the conditions of peace, he was persuaded that the last resources of the country would be cheerfully brought forth, rather than submit to compromise our safety, independence, and honour.

But what was the situation of the contending parties when this arrogant pretension on the part of the enemy was advanced? Was it in a moment of humiliation, defeat, and disgrace? No; it was in the full career of our conquest that they had dared to bring forward their insolent demands: their fleet was perfectly annihilated, which, his lordship said, left no doubt upon his mind, that they must see the impotence of all their schemes in any way to injure this country. The late splendid victory of lord Duncan showed what our navy could accomplish; and whilst we could command such heroic efforts of valour, we should, under divine Providence, determine to rely upon them: we had prowess, and we had resources; our commerce was extensive, our finances were unimpaired; and, generally speaking, *our military operations had been successful*. A nation thus circumstanced had no ground for despondency: he therefore was decidedly of opinion that the conduct of ministers was politic and proper, and such as eventually would best conduce to an honourable peace. He concluded with moving an address to be presented to his majesty, returning thanks for his most gracious speech.

Lord Gwydir said, that the powers of language had been so often employed to describe the complicated nature of this war, that words had lost their effect by repetition; but the magnitude and importance of the object remaining the same, he thought it necessary to declare the principles which had governed his public conduct. He had supported the war from its commencement, because he had esteemed it a just and necessary war: every event, every circumstance had confirmed his opinion; and from this

conviction he called upon their lordships to support the address.

Three times had his majesty's ministers gone to the utmost verge that prudence or honour would admit, in the hope of ending this unexampled contest by negotiation: the result was well known; and he was at a loss to imagine a reason for our ambassador having been received, unless it was to afford the jacobin party in France an opportunity of adding insult to injury. It had been stated from high authority, that a point of honour was almost the only rational cause of war: a dispute for trade, or territorial possession, might be easily compromised, or given up; but the honour of a country gone, its importance must fall with it, and it would soon become the derision of mankind. Had the object of the war been changed? Certainly not: the means of carrying it on had varied, but the preservation of Great Britain had from its commencement been the one grand pursuit.

The aim of France was universal dominion; and whether they pursued it by war or treaty, the object had been never varied.

With professions of justice, good faith, humanity, they had thought no actions too atrocious to be committed; and indulging their imaginations in ideal victory over this country, they already considered it as a conquered enemy, and would listen to no terms but such as they should dictate. The laws which they had made applied only to themselves; occasional possession created of itself indefeasible right; but when this doctrine came under discussion with their adversaries, it was exactly reversed as applied to them, and they instantly demanded a previous unconditional restitution of every thing that had been taken either from themselves or their pre-

tended allies. Had these haughty terms been acceded to, our dishonour would have been sealed, but peace would have been yet more distant. No negotiator could have proposed such conditions but with a view of forcing a continuance of the war. So much for the justice of their theory and practice.

His lordship said it would be waste of time to comment on their good faith, either in the treaties they had dictated and broken, or the alliances they had formed and abused; but it would be well if Europe would take warning, from these treaties and alliances, of what they might expect.

Far different had been the conduct of this country: the state of the funds, the pecuniary difficulties under which we had exerted and maintained our public credit, must have convinced our allies of the efforts we made to supply their wants: we had more than fulfilled every engagement, and in the negotiation we proposed, their interests had been combined with our own.

Perhaps it was wise to learn by negotiation the extent of the insolent demands of the faction in France; perhaps it was necessary to prove to this country that peace was impossible, in order to rouse that vigorous exertion which its interest and honour required. The ministers had gone to every length which prudence and dignity permitted—if not farther; and after the reception of such advances, the nation would be degraded in the eyes of the world, if it hesitated one moment in resenting the insult, and accepting the challenge.

Earl Fitzwilliam rose, and with much warmth concurred in the same opinion; but there were some words in the address, he said, to which he could not agree; because, he

he said, he conceived that they tended to weaken the principle upon which the house might wish to come forward with their support of his majesty. Every expression implying approbation of the steps which had been taken to restore peace should be omitted; nor would he ever lend his sanction to the carrying on a negotiation with a power so anomalous, so dangerous to the safety of Europe, as the French republic.

His lordship much lamented that his majesty had been advised to make a declaration two sessions ago, affirming that France was then in a state to maintain the relations of peace and amity; whereas between that government and ours there subsisted no common principles; and only the restoration of monarchy could render it capable of existence with safety to the other powers of Europe. He believed this declaration had contributed to the continuance of the war, had weakened energy, had engendered distrust amongst the allies, and that its consequence had been the treaty of Udina.

He wished particularly to call the attention of the house to the object of the French government: it was the lust of universal empire; it had debased their old establishment; it distinguished their new. It was unnecessary, he said, to trace its revolutionary progress in all their conquests, intrigues, and negotiations; but all were strongly and incontestably marked with this characteristic feature. He begged their lordships to recollect the professions of liberty and equality with which the Dutch and all their dependencies had been amused and deceived; their conduct to Avignon (and Avignon had never been their enemy); neither did Geneva stand in that situation; the neutral-

ity of Venice, and the complaisance of Genoa towards the French government, did not protect them from the rage of Jacobin protelytism. Their treatment of the Italian states also, and their conduct to America, demonstrated their aim. Friendly as well as neutral powers had been deprived of their rights by Bonaparte, on no other pretence than the convenience or advantage of the republic. Disorganisation in all its extent had uniformly succeeded every establishment they had been able to overthrow. An incompatibility of coalescing with any power whatever was their own incommunicable prerogative; it was for the privilege of regenerating the constitutions of other nations, and protelyting other states, that they threw away all their old forms, burst upon every people in their vicinity, and convulsed them with their enthusiasm; and wherever they penetrated by art or arms the revolutionary mania followed them.

Never had such swarms of banditti issued (continued his lordship) as had issued from the cultivated empire of France, and overspread the surrounding kingdoms with madness and with guilt! And was this the nation with which England was ready to make engagements? The character of its rulers evinced what we might expect from their warmest professions. These were formed upon the spirit of the people, and had presented within these two months a dreadful picture of the cant of liberty, and the horror of despotism. Was not their late proscription of 65 deputies, and their disfranchisement of 33 departments, for whose representation they had arbitrarily and openly sent creatures of their own to the council of five hundred, an instance of this? In fact, the councils were

not the representatives of the people, but of the directory; and this pretended representation extended even to the subordinate municipal officers. Of this primary principle in democracy how much had they boasted, and how little had they realised it!

Was the expulsion of such a number of those chosen by their constituents meant to exemplify their doctrine, or to explain it? did equality consist of such outrages on the rights and feelings of each other? and had we any reason to expect better conduct than they adopted amongst themselves? Here, therefore, his lordship said, he was pledged to the house and to the public to make no peace where peace could neither be honourable nor lasting. It deserved consideration, whether it were not better to prosecute the war on its original ground, or, by ending the one, basely to relinquish the other? The war, it was true, had cost this country many millions; but the taxes were paid, our resources rising, our trade increased, and our commerce flourishing. What was the situation of the enemy in this respect? All the armies they had raised, all the magazines they had filled, all the treasures they had expended, all that they had done; had been effected, not by any well digested plan of equal contribution, but by making the property of individuals answerable to the exigence of the state. With our revenue it was far otherwise; more money had been offered to government than the minister had occasion for; and any sum might have been obtained to carry on a war, of which the people felt the justice and necessity. In fact, all its resources had rather improved than diminished. Where were not our manufactures exported? in what

sea was not the British navy triumphant? and were all these instances of our glory to be surrendered for the amity of a government incapable of accepting, commenting, or realising it? Could we hope for better treatment than any of their other allies? Had they indeed been true to each other, had they been animated with as much zeal to defend, as the French to attack, this war might have been terminated happily long ago; by our own mismanagement, by mutual jealousy, we had ruined the cause we wished to have protected, and the desertion of one led to that of another; but though left in the field alone, we yet occupied such vantage ground as might enable us to hold them for a length of time in perfect defiance. Was not the emperor (the most relied on continental bulwark!) a beacon to the people of this country? He, whose duty it was to have preserved the empire, instead of proving himself the father of his people, was actually, by the ascendancy of the French in his councils, become a *jacobin*: the king of Prussia might also turn such, and fall in with the schemes of this ambitious republic, which already called out for a Transrhene republic on the borders of Austria and Prussia!

Earl Fitzwilliam concluded with exhorting their lordships, if they venerated patriotism, liberty, or laws, to resist all terms of coalescence with this regicide government. He reminded them of his majesty's words in a former speech, "that we fought for order, morality, and religion;" nor could we consistently submit to conditions of peace, until the *old* monarchy was restored in France, and an hereditary sovereign seated upon the throne of his ancestors.

Lord Grenville professed himself

to be entirely of opinion with his noble friend, that there was no safety for any people by being at peace with the French; and the horrible picture which he had so eloquently drawn of the nature of their friendship was justified by the history of their conduct towards the nations whom they had ruined. The calamities they had endured were not so much occasioned by making peace, as by continuing at peace with France: they had fought safety in a temporising system; and, by ignominious compliances with bad principles, had laid themselves open to the miseries which had followed.

It was not by compromises, however humble, nor sacrifices, however extravagant, that security could be obtained against such a system; it was by a vigorous resistance of their principles, a manly disregard of their threats, and a zealous maintenance of our own constitution, that we could secure to ourselves the blessings of our established government.

But he differed from the noble earl as to the inference he had drawn, that this country never could with safety make peace with the French republic. For himself, he never once encouraged such an idea, or expressed such a sentiment; on the contrary, he believed that peace might now be both practicable and permanent, and obtained upon conditions consistent with the honour of this empire; nor had his majesty's ministers declared that no peace could or ought to be made with the republic, only, that it was more likely to be durable under a monarchy. His lordship dwelt some time upon this point, affirming that however we might have preferred to treat with one kind of government rather than another, we had never made any

government a *sine qua non* of negotiation. He objected to the amendment which would make the revival of the old monarchy in France the condition of our treaty, and he considered it as opposite to the very part in the address which the house would wish to support; viz. a declaration that they highly approved of his majesty's endeavours to negotiate with the French republic in order to restore peace; and that it now was evident, from the insolent spirit of the enemy, to whom the continuance of the war was to be attributed.

The marquis of Landsdowne, in an animated speech (wherein he deplored the precipice on which we stood), entreated their lordships to surrender up their prejudices, and contemplate the danger of their situation. The declaration, he said, had made a serious impression on his mind; unaccompanied as it was with documents, he read it with a perfect confidence that the main facts stated were true; but what did they prove? That the French directory had no intention to make peace with us, but were implacably hostile to the government of this country! This was a most important matter, for then the question was, what were we to do in that predicament? The noble earl says, continue the war;—but how? Great Britain was not to be placed on a footing with the petty states which the drunkenness of the French revolution had disturbed; nor ought we to be diverted from the contemplation of our own case by such references. He left them, with all the predictions which had so fatally deluded their lordships, of the impossibility of the French continuing their system. We were come to that point when we were to act for ourselves; and it was needless to remind the house

of

of the principle of those who had carried on the war, which had been, that we could not make any impression on France without a continental ally. If this were true, what must we do when the French had made *a jacobin of the emperor*.

The marquis observed, that he should not have presumed to have called his imperial majesty by this name, but he borrowed the expression from the noble earl.

Could we go on without an ally for any purpose of offence? We could not hope to recover the king of Prussia; he might become a jacobin also; he long ago had wisdom to quit the scene, and now we found that even the emperor had withdrawn. He hoped, however, that we should find him a man of honour in his engagements; and that the money advanced in this country, which our ministers had constantly declared was not a subsidy, but a solemn loan, would be paid with punctuality and honour. But the consideration which he particularly wished to impress, was, that we were called upon to persevere in the contest, without the means so frequently stated as essential to its success. Our resources were affirmed to be rising; but were they actually so? The papers which he had read respecting the trade with Portugal, and the wine trade, afforded proof of a lamentable decay; it was not merely that they were not productive, but that they were deficient. It was not then because our sailors had conquered, because we had demonstrated to all the world the character of our natural strength, that therefore we had the means of carrying on an offensive war against France without a continental ally. Our sailors, indeed, had shown the true *vis animi* of the British marine; they had shown that the country

could rise, in spite of the mismanagement of ministers, like the natural strength of youth, which in a casual sickness resists all the blunders of physicians. But what could our naval exploits avail in such a contest? They made us masters of the sea indeed, but where should we land? If we had the seas, France had its ports: it was necessary to the circuit of commerce that the markets should be open. What then was our relative situation? We had ships that traversed and commanded the ocean; the French had armies that traversed and commanded the shores: we could ship our manufactures, but where could we expose them to sale? What sea was there between Paris and Hamburgh, or Paris and Hanover, or Paris and Lisbon? The French occupied, and they would occupy, every point of contact with the main land of Europe. We had talked of a counter-revolution; were we yet weak enough to cherish this puerile expectation? if so, he begged leave to refer their lordships to a most able pamphlet, written by a late comptroller-general of France. *Monsi. de Calonne* asserted (and his authority was of weight), that the assignats and mandats had produced the contrary effect to what was expected; that it was quite ridiculous to talk about the property of a nation, where all its property was afloat. Its very paper, which we idly supposed the source of ruin, was not merely a genuine resource for the time it lasted, but by our attacks upon it became the principle of salvation to France; it worked out its own cure; and that country, from having more paper than all the world put together, had now less than ours.

The marquis declared solemnly he was himself no jacobin; he came

came not to the house to give his opinion in the spirit of a Frenchman—but in this dreadful crisis he knew but one means, but one chance for safety, but one powerful resource left to the nation—a *change of ministers*. He yet had confidence it would be tried; for the chief magistrate of our government it was not great talents which were required, so much as that plain integrity and humane attention to the good of the people, which rejects all personal considerations, and feels only their happiness. In this view he did not despair of the public zeal, if his majesty would enter into a serious inquiry concerning the most likely methods to restore peace; and every honest man would tell him that a change of ministers was the most likely method. Let us suppose in what manner the directory of France would reason on this subject; might it not be in this strain? “We have convinced the powers on the continent of Europe of the folly of the crusade they undertook against us; we have sent armies into the field whose victories have surpassed those of ancient Rome at its pinnacle of glory; we have magnified the power of our country upon the basis which gave rise to the war; we are young in the enjoyment of our liberties, and all the means of a vigorous government are in our hands; one obstinate nation only, under hot-headed councils, persists in its attack upon us, and charging us with every species of atrocity, denounces us to all the world as the authors of the war which has so long deluged Europe with blood. We, who only wanted liberty, have conquered the powers which wanted plunder, and have aggrandised ourselves at the expense of our assailants. This power, which thus perseveres against us, is brought to

embarrassments which it can neither palliate nor conceal; it stands upon a tottering base; the very shadow of a descent on Ireland convulsed its bank; and at the very moment that it threatens to pour forth vengeance upon us, it is ready to sink under the efforts it has already made. Shall we yield to this insulated foe, who has no armies with which it can wound us? Even in asking for peace they mean hostility—they seek an armistice which shall give them time to take breath, and attack us to more advantage again—they are insincere—they are our only enemy, and now is the moment to save France from their designs.”

It was possible (the marquis said) that the directory would hold such language; which, though it could not be wholly justified, had too much truth on its side. They had too much reason to doubt our sincerity, even in our professions of peace; for in all the instances where commissioners had been appointed to negotiate, a dark game had been played which contradicted the public profession of the British cabinet. Thus when a commissioner was sent to Switzerland, and Mr. Wickham opened a correspondence with the French, they discovered it was only for the purpose of negotiating a loan. Again, when lord Malmesbury was sent to Paris, whilst we were making professions of peace there, we were negotiating a hostile treaty with Russia, for such it was now known was the fact, and the treaty was ready for signing when the empress died. And last of all, our negotiation at Lisle was accompanied by that counter-revolutionary insurrection in the interior in France, which produced the convulsion of the 4th of September, and in which they said that they discovered the hand of the English minister.

minister. The marquis disclaimed having any personal knowledge upon the subject; but remarked, that people must be wilfully blind who did not perceive that the French had charged our ministry with the fact, and that our declaration was shy of disproving the charge. What then would an honest adviser of his majesty say? but that ministers who had thus conducted themselves, and thus exasperated the enemy, were less likely than other men to procure peace for the country. They would entreat his majesty, at least, to try the experiment; they would deprive the enemy of the advantage of asserting with probability, that the war was continued only because the British cabinet was insincere. But it might be asked, upon what basis peace ought to be concluded? It was his opinion, that if it was concluded in a total abandonment of every idea of promoting internal insurrection in France, he should not be very anxious in specifying the conditions. Neither East nor West Indian colonies, no, nor Trincomale itself, was sufficient argument for the continuance of the war. As to West India settlements, the recent events had materially changed our policy with regard to them. When we enjoyed all their consumption it was far different; but now that it was in a great measure transferred to America, which would one day take those islands to itself, and when the enlightened spirit of humanity had done so much towards the emancipation of the negroes, and the French revolution had introduced principles of insubordination, he would not contend a day about any object in the West Indies. Respecting the Cape of Good Hope, about which so many lofty expectations were formed, the whole was found to be a dream.

The whole was then reduced to Trincomale; and though he must acknowledge that it was of enormous value to the defence of the eastern empire, and the thing for which we ought to negotiate, and to procure if possible, yet it was not worth further slaughter: we had gained the East without it, we had taken it before now, and given it up, nor was it worth another campaign, which would cost us 30 millions:

Let us engage the European powers (those on whom we could prevail) in a *defensive* league; in fact, our system ought to be purely defensive; nor was a defensive war a great evil to this country, compared with that which we had been doomed to suffer. Our means for such a system were large; our nautical skill, and our nautical capital, would maintain to us the true sovereignty of the seas, for it would secure to us the empire of its commerce: let us regain the opinion of Europe, which we had lost by our pride and rapacity, let us proclaim freedom to neutral nations (for in the end we should be forced to do it, and with an ill grace), and by thus recognising the commercial liberty of the world, we should be the first to profit from it. His lordship then touched upon the state of Ireland; the representation of its grievances, he said, if true, demanded instant redress; and if it were delayed there remained but one alternative, a feudal union, or separation. People who were to be governed by us, had a right to the security of their property and quiet; and there was no means of restoring both, but by making peace with this mighty nation, who, to the enthusiasm of liberty, had all the resources of a country before them. They were not exhausted as we were; they had not run through all the classes of taxation; the

the combat was unequal, and he dreaded the event. Peace was necessary for our deliverance; by this alone we might lessen our expenses, and pave the way for the amelioration of our internal state; we might satisfy the people that their representation was substantial, not by holding out the nonsense of universal suffrage, but by gradual reforms growing out of the constitution itself. We had a prince of experience on the throne, who had friends able to give him sound advice: and the marquis concluded with a wish, that by acting upon their counsels he might yet rescue his people from the fate which seemed impending, and that we might owe the national safety to his paternal care.

Lord Mulgrave admitted, that if peace could be obtained by a change of ministers, they ought to be changed immediately, whatever merits they possessed; but he did not believe this desirable consequence would follow such a change. Supposing it to take place, who was to succeed them? The noble marquis undoubtedly had abilities and experience as a statesman that well qualified him for the situation of a minister; but who would place confidence in him after his speech of that evening? In his moderate manifesto, speaking as a member of the directory, he had insinuated every thing that was degrading to the dignity of this country; in his second character of a *passionate* member of the directory, he had gone still further, and, with the fury of a jacobin, levelled the British character to the ground, and triumphed in its degradation.

He dissented from the marquis respecting the means we yet possessed of retaining the West Indies, as well as their value, and also the Cape of Good Hope and Trinco-

male. But what had been the counsel recommended? a defensive alliance with all the powers of Europe. But against France the noble marquis had taken care not to be understood. Lord Mulgrave said, it was an axiom that defensive war led to offensive conduct, and consequently provoked all the dangers of offensive war without its advantages; and by this plan all security was to be given up before we could be certain of peace. The war ought to be carried on; and there was no utility in removing the ministers, nor could he suppose we should sink under our present difficulties, whilst the courage, energy, and resources of the nation remained as they did at present.

The duke of Norfolk, after approving of the conduct of those lords who had absented themselves from the house, observed that parliament had of late been much neglected by his majesty's ministers; and on the present occasion still less regard than usual had been shown to what was due to their lordships. His grace then referred to that part of the declaration which had stated the exorbitant demands of France, requiring that his majesty should give up, without compensation, the necessary defences of his possessions, and the future safeguard of his empire; nor was this demand brought forward as the price of peace, but of negotiation.

He remarked, that this proved the enemy was in the wrong, but not that the minister was in the right. The declaration and the papers were said to have proved, "that every step had been taken on his majesty's part to accelerate peace, and that the long delay and final rupture of the negotiation was solely to be ascribed to the evasive conduct and unwarrantable pretensions of the French."

His

His grace observed, that no such papers had appeared before their lordships. The address implied that it had been satisfactory, whereas it never had been seen. This was a mode of voting approbation of the conduct of ministers before they knew what it was; and therefore he moved an amendment, of which the substance was, that after thanking his majesty, might be added, "when their lordships were satisfied with the contents of these papers, no co-operations of theirs should be wanting to carry his majesty's intentions into effect."

Lord Grenville said the motion was most irregular; he had no objection to discuss the subject of it, but not in its present form. It was the custom of parliament to come to a vote on the speech from the throne, and to lay the documents to which it referred before the house afterwards; this would be done the next day, and he would predict that their lordships would be clearly satisfied that every thing had been done on the part of his majesty which had been stated in the declaration.

The question was then put and carried.

In the commons, Mr. W. Bootle moved the address; he professed to do it with more satisfaction, because whatever difference of opinion there might have been respecting the cause of the war, there could be but one, as to the necessity of its continuance, when our enemies had left us no alternative.

The restoration of tranquillity and of uninterrupted commerce were objects of as much importance to the sovereign as to the subjects of a commercial country; and we could not doubt the pleasure with which his majesty would have come to parliament, to have inform-

ed them, that an honourable treaty of peace had been the fruits of his second negotiation; that he had met with an enemy equally disposed for conciliation, equally desirous to act up to their loud professions, and to make those mutual sacrifices and compensations which the custom of negotiation required.

Very different was the present case: his majesty indeed might tell us with truth, that, animated with the desire of conducting to the tranquillity of Europe, he had again stepped forward in a manner which would have satisfied a reasonable enemy; that he had even risked the dignity of these kingdoms by the renewal of his advances, and offered to make sacrifices which the relative situations of the powers at war did not warrant; but his offers had been treated with contempt, his terms unattended to and unanswered; and, after a long and fruitless attempt to bring the enemy to negotiation, his ambassador had been dismissed with insult.

To all this he had submitted, to prove to his subjects the sincerity of his wishes for peace.

Mr. B. said, that it did not appear to have been any question of terms, any resistance of aggrandisement on our part, nor a desire of it on theirs, but an inveterate resolution to preclude all negotiation whatever.

That an enemy should have demanded such sacrifices as no country had at any time yielded to another, as the price of peace, would at most periods have been a sufficient reason for a king to throw himself on the support and affections of his subjects: there might possibly be occasions which would justify the surrendering much more than the relative situation of two countries would make fair or reasonable, provided by such surrenders

fers peace could be purchased; but that which would be most difficult for the sovereign of a free people to avow, that which would argue him infensible to the duty which he owed them, would be to acquaint them, that in yielding to every exorbitant demand, in sacrificing all that had been acquired by their valour, in giving up their commercial and political interests, he had exhausted the means of negotiation *without attaining the ends of peace*. He trusted that a British king, in applying to a British parliament, need not apologise for having avoided unprofitable concessions and fruitless disgrace. That all concessions would have been unprofitable, and that in sacrificing the honour of the nation he would equally have failed in securing its tranquillity, no man could entertain a doubt who looked not at the king's speech, in which he had so firmly appealed to his subjects and to the world, but who had looked at the conduct of the French government.

Since the revolution of last September, the directory had taken no pains to conceal their intention of continuing hostilities—to remove all doubt upon the subject, they took the negotiation out of the hands to which it had been entrusted, and sent creatures of their own to Lisle, with pacific professions in their mouths, but charged expressly to break it off, or at least to advance propositions which had been before rejected by us and abandoned by them; and which they knew could never be accepted. It was evident that their object was not to treat more advantageously for themselves, that would have been excusable, but to render all treaty impossible, to retract whatever the former situation of affairs in France had induced them to concede, and

to show that it was not the mode of peace, but peace itself that they disclaimed.

Mr. Bootle declared it as his opinion, that no line of conduct on our part could bring about this desired object; at the same time he hoped that we should not show an inability, or want of inclination, to carry on the war, but willingly declare our intention of supporting his majesty in the measures he might judge necessary towards the good of the kingdom, and the preservation of its constitution. Let us (said he) give our enemies to understand, that whatever divisions may have existed before, they have now united all Englishmen in one general sentiment. Let us no longer give them reason to hope that they may destroy this their Carthage, against which they have so repeatedly denounced vengeance, or carry into execution their iniquitous plan of revolutionising this country, and of forcing upon us the example of the defenceless states of Germany and Italy.

The choice was now before us; we might disband our armies, our victorious navies, and oppose no resistance to the invading foe; we might resign our lives and properties to the disposal of France, and rank ourselves in the number of her dependents; we might expect to see the throne, and the laws of the realm, overturned and trampled under foot, and prepare the contributions which would be levied upon us to defray the expenses of our own ruin; to all this we must submit, or resolve to continue the war!

Mr. Bootle proceeded to consider our present situation: we were, he said, engaged in no continental war, nor did we depend on the faith of other powers; we fought upon our own element, where we had long

long been used to conquer, and to regard ourselves with reason as sole and exclusive masters. Nor were our claims ill-founded: in the annals of all maritime wars, in which we had been engaged, we should find that a long and uniform habit of victory had inspired us with ideas of our own superiority. British sailors fight with a consciousness of this superiority, and with a spirit arising from it unknown to other nations.

The events of the last three years supplied ample materials for triumph and exultation; we had swelled the list of prizes to a degree unheard of in former wars, we had ruined the commerce, and crippled the navies of our enemies; we had kept possession of the sea against three formidable and allied powers, blocked up their ports, whilst superior fleets lay mouldering within, inactive; and when the reproaches of their countrymen had forced them to battle, the result had invariably been what they had dreaded, and what we had expected.

Mr. Boodle then moved an address of thanks, which was as usual an echo of the speech.

Mr. Drummond seconded the motion; he said he was truly sorry that he had not now to congratulate the country on the cessation of the storm which had so long convulsed Europe: the evils of war were dreadful to humanity; but there were evils still greater, and those were in store for England if she did not call forth all her energy in resistance to a ferocious and implacable enemy, who had unequivocally professed a determination to her extinction, and spurned from her every proposition, however reasonable, for peace. As a proof of this, he called the attention of the house to the negotiation at

Lisle; dwelt much upon the arrogance of the enemy, which increased in proportion to our solicitude to conciliate, from the first refusal at Basle, to the late dismissal of lord Malmesbury. He pointed out the extravagance of their ambition after having subjected Flanders, organised Holland, attacked Venice, Genoa, and many states of Italy and on the Rhine, pillaged Germany, adding two new principalities to their republic, and concluded with modestly desiring to destroy England!—to strip her of her commerce, her consequence, and her honour!

“If (said he) the enemy obstinately and inveterately determine to refuse peace upon a fair footing, and to agree to mutual compensation for mutual wrongs, we are under the necessity of repelling force by force; and let us meet them with one hand and one heart, and with all the energy which the love of country and of liberty can inspire.”

Mr. Bryan Edwards rose, and prefaced his speech by cordially assenting to that part of the address which related to the victory obtained by our fleet under admiral Duncan; but declared it as his opinion, that notwithstanding this brilliant victory, parliament had never assembled at a more perilous period; we were (he said) engaged in a war expensive and bloody beyond example; with an enemy who seemed determined to continue the contest, more for our ruin, than their own advantage;—our people, galled under the weight of excessive burdens, divided among themselves, unanimous only in their disapprobation and distrust of parliament; our strongest support, Ireland, now in rebellion, or only kept down by military force.—With no better prospect in our view, how dreary and

and afflicting was the scene! how feeble the consolation which a single victory could supply! Brilliant and decisive as it was (adding one to the many distinguished proofs which this war had afforded of the superiority of our navy), it was, after all, but the triumph of an hour; a triumph which may have disconcerted indeed a hostile expedition, but had certainly thinned the ranks of our gallant defenders. Amidst our public rejoicings, what heart could reflect without sorrow upon the havoc of that day!—could meditate upon its advantages, without feeling for the men who fell!

This war had been attended with a waste of wealth, and prodigality of blood, not to be paralleled in the history of human depravity. Two hundred millions of money had been the waste of four years; and two hundred thousand the number of lives which had been lost. He then proceeded to inquire what prospect did the king's speech hold out to us? Was it the effectual relief of our burdens? No. Was it the hope of harmony in Ireland?—No. Was it *indemnity for the past, and security for the future*?—No. Was it peace?—No; but the reverse. It promised us the renewal of that devastation we lamented—or had cause to lament; it menaced us with more carnage, more tears, more sighs, and, perhaps deeper, of widows, sisters, and children! But it would-probably be asked, had no efforts been made to obtain peace? None, suitable to the occasion; none, founded in sincerity, and breathing the genuine spirit of sweet concord.

If we recurred to lord Malmesbury's first mission to Paris, we might without hesitation pronounce that the minister was not sincere: the terms which the French would have granted, and he refused, were

such as he would now gladly accept, and which they decline to give. The French would have granted peace, on condition of holding what they then had; but the minister would be contented with nothing short of the restitution of Belgium; and the safety of England was sacrificed to the interest of the emperor.

Mr. Edwards instanced, as one of the proofs of ministerial error and diplomatic absurdity, the sending the same man (lord Malmesbury) a second time to negotiate, who had once (as it was asserted) been disgracefully dismissed from Paris, and thus aggravating the contumely it brought upon this country.

He would, for the sake of argument, he said, suppose, that the failure of that attempt was not owing to the unreasonable demands of our minister, but to the extravagant expectations of the French. But was it not one of many instances of bad judgment, to place his lordship again in a situation to be treated with contempt? Mr. Edwards declared, for his own part, he thought it would have been a happy circumstance if that noble lord had been empowered at the outset to make the offer of restitution desired by France; and it surely ought to weigh against the professions of the minister, who did not thus empower him.

But to examine the question another way: were the conquests we had made of sufficient value to justify the hazard and loss which we must sustain by a further prosecution of the war? No! Sir Francis Baring (continued Mr. Edwards), whose acquaintance with the British interests in the East could not be doubted, had stated in the house, that the Cape of Good Hope, instead of being an advantage, would

be a burden, both grievous and unproductive. He had also stated, that Trincomale, in Ceylon, could not be preserved, unless we were masters of the whole island: an acquisition utterly hopeless; and that the fortifying of that port would cost more than the whole would be worth;—so much for the east. Now, as to the West Indies, he would affirm, without fear of contradiction, that if it were in our power to take the whole of the French islands, so far from being advantageous, they would be untenable, or ruinous. Whoever would review the conduct of the French in that quarter, would discern that no hope could be entertained from them as good subjects. Some of the islands were ceded to us by treaty in the year 1761, and continued thirty years in our possession, and under our protection; yet at the end of that period the French inhabitants seized the first opportunity to revolt; instigated the negroes to rise and murder their masters; and, urged by that monster Victor Hugues, they committed the most horrid massacres; and by them the governor was, together with several planters, led out to a cruel death. In such circumstances we might possibly have a barren depopulated territory, but we could have no more: and it was a subject of serious consideration for the house, and of awful caution to ministers, to beware of lavishing human blood on such unprofitable conquests. Besides, there was another argument, which no sophistry could evade; another power, which no human means could resist:—the hand of the Supreme Being, armed with plague and pestilence, was held out against us, to scourge our cupidity and ambition.

And could we, without guilt, persist in sending our gallant fel-

low-subjects to St. Domingo?—Send them; knowing it was impossible to conquer an island 400 miles in length and 165 in breadth, filled with hosts of enemies, and guarded against us by pestilence!

Mr. Edwards concluded his speech with lamenting the absence of Mr. Fox, whose talents, transcendent as they were, were the least of his merits. He expressed his fears that this distinguished patriot had retired wearied, and without hope, in silent and prophetic anguish. And when that man despaired, who had once, in spite of parliamentary majorities, saved this country from a war with Russia, what remained for others of inferior endowments, but, like him, to retire from the scene, mourn over evils which they could not prevent, and expect the dissolution of an unhappy kingdom!

Mr. Wilberforce said, he was far from participating in the poignant grief expressed for the absence of Mr. Fox; if, indeed, the presence of this gentleman, and the exertion of his acknowledged and great abilities, could extricate the country from the difficulties in which it was involved, the want of his advice might be severely felt, and should be bitterly lamented. Every body knew that the nation was in a critical situation; but was this condition to be retrieved by a dereliction of public duty? For himself, he avowed, that so far from imitating an example so unwarrantable, the love of his country induced him to pursue a line of conduct very different; he would punctually attend to the discharge of his duty, and, however discouraging the prospect, would exert his best abilities to perform it with patience and attention, prompted by an inward sense of right, not by motives of personal ambition.

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As to the proposed address, it presented such general assurances, as all descriptions of gentlemen might consent to, who were sensible of the blessings of our constitution. Ministers were sincerely solicitous for the restoration of peace; indeed the only charge against them was, that they proceeded in a posture too humiliating to accomplish their end. But this humiliation was pardonable, for it was not degrading: it did not tend to encourage the enemy to consider this submission as a symptom of weakness; but after what we had experienced of their rancorous and hostile disposition, we ought to guard against it with renewed vigilance: it had stimulated them to unremitted efforts to wrest out of our hands those possessions which were the resources of our trade; and if any of them should be surrendered as the price of peace, it should be not to Holland, not to Spain, not to France, but to our country. Peace was the object we pursued, but not with due attention to the relative situation of the nations: without having this point in view, we might frustrate our own purposes; of this we should be well aware, whilst we professed ourselves willing either to make peace when the most brilliant success had crowned our arms, or vigorously to prosecute the war, if the ambition and obstinacy of the enemy reduced us to it. This should be our conduct, whether we regarded ourselves as Englishmen, or members of the constitution; and we should feel it our duty to stand at our post to the last; nor imitate the example of those, who, under circumstances of difficulty and danger, would pusillanimously desert it.

Sir Horace Mann coincided in all the honourable gentleman had said.

He declared himself astonished to hear ministers accused of insincerity, when it so plainly appeared that it was the French who were averse to peace; they had actually banished two directors who had evinced pacific dispositions, and left us no alternative but perseverance in the contest. He thought our situation such as to arouse all the energies, and call forth the unanimity of the British heart, and therefore supported the address.

Mr. Nichols declared, he was heartily disposed to lament the absence of Mr. Fox, however he might expose himself to censure for his regret. He much extolled the talents of this accomplished statesman, who had toiled for a number of years in opposing a majority of that house, which supported the American war; the termination of which was principally to be ascribed to his unwearied perseverance. By that war the house of Brunswick was deprived of a valuable portion of its dominions—heaven forbid (said Mr. Nichols) that it should sustain additional privation by listening to the sinister counsel by which it has long been governed! He then expatiated on the censure and obloquy which had been the recompence of Mr. Fox's labours; and was instancing the conduct of parliament respecting the India bill brought forward in 1782, though that bill contained a true statement, and showed the company to be four millions in arrears; he was proceeding to give an history of his whole parliamentary conduct, when he was called to order by the speaker, who observed, that he seemed quite to have forgotten the question under discussion.

Mr. Nichols instantly apologized; said it was his sincere wish to support royalty, nobility, and the

the rights of the commons, the whole of which were in extreme danger; but while he saw it necessary to wage a war, *probris et fecis*, he could not stifle his resentment against a minister by whose rashness it was begun, and through whose incapacity its progress had been disgraced by disaster and defeat. We were now without allies, our very existence was threatened, and he could not believe the endeavours in a late negotiation had been sincere. What were the obstacles which defeated these endeavours? Our refusal to surrender the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, and Trincomale. But why did we wish to retain them? Was it their value? Surely not, neither was it a point of honour to do so; the same reason might be urged for retaining Martinique, Demerary, &c. which we should not hesitate to resign. Was it our interest to continue the war for the sake of keeping what would soon cost us more than they were worth? If such were our intention, let us look into the state of our finances. From July 1796, to July 1797, an addition of two millions six hundred thousand pounds had appeared in the dividends, which was equal to eighty-seven millions and a half in the three per cents, and thus there would be four millions addition to them if the war continued another year. He could not pretend to say how this could be borne by the landed property, but the funds must give way, and the middling class of the people be ruined, and all these calamities were to be endured to secure the Cape of Good Hope! Whilst our ears were stunned with public rejoicings for victories which availed little, our finances required the most serious attention: we owed it as a duty to recommend to his ma-

jestty a change of ministers; they had long been tried, and tried to no purpose; nor would the people join cordially in the cause, until they were convinced that every thing was done which could possibly be attempted. Ireland at least would not join; the cruel treatment which she had experienced must alienate her affections, and without peace the nation could expect no prosperity.

Mr. Nichols professed himself ready to join any description of men to promote the attainment of this object, and to support the constitution of his country in its present establishment of royalty, nobility, the commons, and episcopacy.

Sir William Young said, the leading feature in the late negotiation had been overlooked; it was, that we should surrender all our conquests, and then treat perhaps for our navy. Such was the terms imposed on Carthage of old, and what was the consequence? *Delenda erat Carthago*. It was obtaining the sybil's leaf at a double price; but he would never consent to measure the stake of a man merely by his wealth; it consisted in his children, his relatives, his liberty, his opinions as well as his property; and he called upon liberal minds to support the statement of the stake of a man in the welfare of his country.

Mr. H. Brown made an observation upon one part of Mr. Edwards' speech, that we were only unanimous in complaining of our burdens. He said, it was upon good authority he could affirm that the taxes of the country were never better or more cheerfully paid than at present. But taxes ought not to be considered abstractedly but relative to our situation, and this ought to afford us great comfort; for viewed in this point, our prosperity

prosperity was a permanent cause, producing great resources.

The address was carried without a division.

The next business which occupied the attention of parliament was the unfortunate negotiation at Lisle. On the 8th of November, the order of the day for taking into consideration the papers relative to the negotiation of Lisle being read in the house of lords, lord Grenville said, there could be no difference of opinion upon the subject; every one must feel that the honour and safety of the country admitted but of one line of conduct. The house was not now called upon to bear testimony to any merits however high, or to bestow respect and attention where they were most due; but to discharge a duty of a more extensive kind, and of more general importance. They were called upon to perform a most solemn act of deliberation, and to follow it up with a pledge of most sacred obligation; it included a promise of support to our common sovereign, whose throne, whose sacred life, the honour and independence of the country (involving at the same time the cause of civil society), the welfare of Great Britain, and of Europe, were at stake.

The impression which the perusal of those papers had made upon his mind was indelibly fixed in every heart, and if there were any lords who had absented themselves on this occasion, it was because they were unwilling to confess what they had no longer the confidence to deny.

His lordship contended that the steps taken by this country during the negotiation were open, fair, and manly, and such as would best conduce to an honourable peace. The papers would substantiate best this

assertion. Let the reciprocal conduct of the two governments on this occasion be compared, and it would instantly be seen to which party the failure of the negotiation was to be ascribed: let the publications of the enemy respecting that event be considered, contrasted with the mode taken by the government of Britain to promulgate the circumstances belonging to it; these papers exhibited a full, explicit, and detailed account of the whole transaction, and evinced that the principle of compensation was understood at first to be the basis of negotiation, and that the French took an early opportunity of receding from it.

The preliminaries of peace (continued lord Grenville) had been solemnly agreed upon between them and the emperor; both parties obliged themselves to invite their respective allies to meet in a general congress to settle it: this agreement was openly violated. Even *in limine* it was obvious that they accepted the proffer of negotiation, merely because they knew that such was the general temper of the people of France that they could not venture to refuse it. However, they would only consent to enter into it for a definitive peace with this country, and in the first instance desired it might be a separate peace; but *that*, his majesty immediately rejected, being determined to guard the interests of his ally the queen of Portugal, and to put the republic on an equal footing, intimated that he would allow them to treat for Spain and Holland their allies. This point adjusted, another difference rose, contrary to the established usage of all negotiation—they objected to the taking into consideration the treaties existing with other nations, though France was a

guarantee to them. Anxious to restore peace, his majesty overlooked these difficulties, new and unprecedented as they were.

The directory, defeated in their first objects, were obliged to proceed in the negotiation. In the passport sent over for the person whom his majesty should appoint to treat, the form was a direct and intentional departure from positive agreement and established custom; it expressly guarded against a preliminary, and limited the object to a definitive peace, though the moment the negotiation was opened they departed from their own stipulation, and commenced with the proposal and discussion of those very preliminary points: to prove the kind of temper which the enemy brought to the negotiation, they flung out base and unworthy insinuations against the person appointed to conduct it; this indeed only deserved contempt, but it showed a spirit eager to bring forward new causes of animosity, and multiply obstacles. His lordship then adverted to the negotiation itself; his majesty had (he said) with an unexampled liberality, directed, almost in the first interview between the plenipotentiaries, a full and detailed account to be given in of the terms upon which he would conclude peace. The paper was on the table, and every one might read and determine for themselves on its nature and character; might judge whether it was a full and fair statement of honourable treaty, or a *project in blank*; lord Grenville particularly wished it might be compared with the representation given of it by the enemy in a paper of high authority, and published officially. This project however being delivered, the French government found itself embarrassed; no answer was return-

ed, because this would have disappointed the schemes of the directory: had they been serious in their wishes for peace, would they have brought forward the topics which they did bring forward? would they have stated the points of his majesty's title as king of France? the restoration of the ships taken at Toulon, or a renunciation of the mortgages of this country upon the Netherlands? But the point on which the failure of the negotiation turned was the renewal of a proposal which had been declared inadmissible; the complete renunciation of every thing which had been taken during the war, not only from them but their allies: they demanded, as a preliminary, to renounce all that we had to ask, and to declare all that we would concede. It would not have been merely folly, it would have been treason in any minister to have complied with a demand so derogatory to the honour, and so fatal to the interests, of his country.

It would easily be recollected in what circumstances, amidst what violence the French constitution of 1795, overthrown by the revolution of the 4th of September, was established; it would be recollected under what military violence the first elections were conducted: in no sense was any freedom permitted, or the voice and sentiments of the people of France possible to be collected, till the month of April last, when a considerable change in the temper of the councils, as well as in the people at large, was observed: a majority in the legislative bodies seemed disposed to put an end to the miseries of the country, to remove the evils of which some of them had been the authors, to atone for the crimes of which many of them had been guilty, and to restore

store some degree of order and tranquillity to the unhappy people of France.

They wished also to oppose that revolutionary principle which the directory endeavoured to spread with too much success over Europe. These views, however, ill accorded with the schemes of the latter: but had they broken off the negotiation upon the terms we offered, immediately had they thrown off the mask, and revealed their determination of prolonging the miseries of their own country on jacobin principles, and by jacobin means, they would have put the councils on their guard, they would have made all France and Europe the judges of their conduct, and they would have anticipated the event which they were preparing. Again, had they brought forward another project of their own, they must have disappointed the object which they had in view, that of breaking off the negotiation without specifying any terms, and throwing the whole odium of the failure upon us. At the moment they were practising every evasion, creating every delay, refusing to deliver in a counter project, they held a language directly opposite in their messages to the council. In these, they threw the charge of procrastination upon us, wishing to gain time till their plot was ready to be executed; and whilst their plenipotentiaries were daily apologising to us, for the extraordinary delays which took place, they unhappily succeeded in their designs, and the frail fabric of the constitution of 1795 was overturned. It was clear to every one who had watched the progress of events, that it was at Paris, not at Lille, that the result of the conferences would be determined; it depended on the disputes

which agitated the councils and the government: and if the directory succeeded, the event might easily be foreseen.

This formed the only excuse for our ministers having submitted so long to the evasions of the enemy; and their hopes of attaining peace at last favoured the deception which the directory wished to pass upon the people of France, by so long keeping up the appearance of negotiation, and cherishing the expectations of success.

When the revolution of September arrived, and they had accomplished their project at Paris, they immediately changed their system; and avowed their object. Every thing which had been done was retracted; their views were evidently not confined to their own country, or to the rupture of the negotiation; they went further, they declared it was our constitution, our laws, our religion, and our liberties, with which they were at war; it was our public glory and our private happiness which they laboured to subvert, and to establish in their stead French liberty, French principles, and French anarchy, with all its train of horrors! With such avowals, his lordship said, he was at a loss to conceive what palliations could possibly be offered for the conduct of the enemy: he well knew and lamented that every measure of the French government, in its relation to this country, found more able and ingenious apologists here than in France; and even what seemed too flagrant for defence was justified by more plausible arguments, and placed in more favourable lights, than the talents of the friends of the directory on the other side the water could produce.

This was no moment for humi-
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liation; it was not the period when the dignity and honour of the nation ought to be sacrificed; nor was it the season to despair: the resources of the country were great and powerful; public and private happiness were at stake; every man in that assembly in particular must know that his property and his existence depended on the issue of the contest which we had to maintain: but with the interest of the first class of men in the state, the happiness of the lowest was consulted; the sufferings, the persecutions, the horrors to which the first orders in France were doomed, though they began with the noblesse, were spread over all, and felt even by the humblest peasantry of the kingdom; nay, had been the source of more calamity to them, than to the unhappy nobility whom we every day saw groaning under their distresses: and this was the sentiment with which the people of this country at large were inspired; they were convinced that a vigorous effort was essential to secure an honourable peace, that there was no safety without resistance, no hope but in courage and magnanimity. His lordship concluded this speech, of uncommon length, with strenuously recommending perseverance in the conduct we had hitherto pursued, and entreating the house to carry the declaration of these resolutions to the foot of the throne, with solemn pledges to defend, at every hazard, his majesty's person and government, with the liberties and happiness of England.

The earl of Darnley said, he approved of the moderation, as well as the vigour, of the late negotiations, and particularly of the conduct of the French commissioners; but he thought that we were not doing for the relative si-

tuation of the countries at present to justify our despondency. He could not see how it was possible for the enemy to prosecute hostilities offensively, when he considered the deplorable state of their navy, and the triumphant condition of ours: the resources of our country were adequate to the contest, and he expected the most perfect unanimity amongst their lordships.

The address was carried nem. diff.

On the 10th of November the same subject was taken into consideration by the house of commons.

Sir John Sinclair, though he professed entire acquiescence as to its general tenor, moved an amendment to the address of thanks, because certain phrases appeared to him exceptionable, indicating an intention that there should be no end to the war. He expressed astonishment at the mean manner in which the negotiation had been conducted. When it was first proposed, he intended to have moved the house that no negotiation should have been set on foot till the French minister had given a contre project. He now regretted not having done so, but he was deterred by the fear that it might have been an impediment. Ministers by neglecting this in the onset, had brought much disgrace upon the country. He appealed to the papers whether the charge was unfounded, for by those it would appear that the most unwarrantable insinuations and foul calumnies upon our executive government had been patiently born by our ministers. He was sorry to see the country so lowered. Whilst he lamented our management, he was obliged, he said, to censure no less the language of the declaration and address, as being at once full of raffiness, and ineffectual to any good

good purpose; they not only professed to keep up perpetual hostilities, but made charges which were not justified by the papers.

The house was told that the preliminaries proposed by the French government were frivolous and offensive; but on looking into them, they would find that the first of those was, the abandonment by our king of the title of king of France; the second, the restitution of the ships taken at Toulon; and the third, the relinquishment of our mortgage on the Low Countries: but for his part he could not see any thing in the papers that showed an express demand of those points on the part of France. The declaration stated, that it was not their wish to make peace; whereas it appeared on the face of the papers that the French plenipotentiaries took much pains to prove the reverse, and this the house would find acknowledged by lord Malmesbury in his first and second letters. Another charge was, that it was their intention to overthrow the government of England: sir John declared, that if he believed this to be the disposition of France, he would vote for the address as it stood; but it was his opinion that such an intention might be transiently expressed, only under the irritation of supposed wrong. France might probably be inveterate against us, believing that we were inveterate against her; the directory might profess a design to overturn our government, because we had endeavoured to overturn theirs, but at the same time, showed they had no objection to peace, if we would leave them alone. To prevent the perpetuation of these sentiments between the two nations, he moved an amendment, expressing the resolution of the house to support his majesty in the war, to

expunge the words denoting an inveterate animosity, and to declare, that whenever France was disposed to treat on reasonable terms, we would not refuse to negotiate.

Lord Temple sincerely lamented that the negotiation had ever been attempted, and as sincerely rejoiced when it had been broken off; for he saw infinitely more danger (he said) in the conclusion of a peace with the present rulers of France than in the continuation of war: indeed the disposition of those men was so manifested in all their conduct for the last four years, that any one might have foreseen the event of the overture. It was a matter of utter indifference to England what form of government might take place on the other side of the water, provided it was such as promised permanency. His only wish was that peace should be lasting, and for this reason he entertained hopes of pacification when the moderate party was gaining ground; but the moment it gave way, an end was put to all accommodation. The same animosity which actuated them in the beginning of the contest was visible at Lille, and had been avowed by the directory since the negotiation had been broken off; they had declared that *delenda est Carthago* must be the determination of the contest. Of the extent and inveteracy of their designs, there could be no stronger proof than their decreeing an army to march to the coast opposite to our shores, and dignifying it with the name of the Army of England; not to mention their scoffing at the rights of nations, and disclaiming all right to be bound by the most solemn treaties. What confidence could be placed in men who had broken them already? who had transferred nations who relied upon them to the

the dominion of other powers; offered assistance to the rebellious of every country; deceived their own people with the name of liberty; sent off the legal constitutional representatives of the nation into banishment without proof of their guilt, or even trial, and imprisoned a printer for invectives against their war minister?

The chancellor of the exchequer rose: he expressed disappointment that the concurrence of the house upon such a subject as was now submitted to their consideration, should not be unanimous, and much surprise at the proposed amendment of the honourable baronet. The continuance of the war was to be ascribed alone to the implacable animosity, to the insatiable ambition, to the unwarrantable pretensions of the present frantic government of France. Was it the business of a British parliament to content itself with mere lamentation of the miseries of war, forgetting that it was the duty of the representatives of a great nation to state the source of those miseries. Our calamities proceeded from the rancorous spirit of the enemy; and to them, not to us, the guilt and responsibility of future extremities were to be imputed. Ministers had exerted every endeavour to procure peace; and from the commencement of the negotiation to its final rupture, the whole of the intermediate delay was owing to the evasive conduct of France. Mr. Pitt reprobated with much sarcasm what he called the tendernefs of the honourable baronet, who chose rather to disguise the truth, than risk the tremendous evil of offending such an enemy, by using language which might displease them; compromising the character of the country, leaving it doubtful to Eu-

rope to whom the rupture of the negotiation was to be ascribed, and fearing to pursue that manly conduct which truth and dignity required, lest we should cherish a spirit of endless animosity.

So far from this being the proper inference, the very reverse was the case: he who scrupled to declare that the government of France had acted in direct contempt of every principle of justice; he who blinked the discussion of this important point, deprived us of the most consolatory reflection which we could enjoy amidst inevitable calamity and necessary war. It was from the consideration that it was the government, not the people of France, who were to blame, that we now might indulge hopes of a more favourable change of circumstances. Was there a word in the address which breathed the spirit of endless animosity? Surely not! on the contrary, his majesty assured the people of this country, he declared to France and to Europe, that he did not forego the hope of pacification, and that he was prepared to renew his endeavours to effect it whenever the enemy should discover a temper more corresponding to his own. Nay more, whilst the declaration disclaimed all enmity against the French nation, it professed to have no objection to treat even with those who exercised at present the functions of government. Even after the distinguished successes which had crowned his majesty's arms, he was willing to conclude a peace with that very government, upon those moderate terms which he proposed in the moment of our greatest difficulty. Mr. Pitt then went over all the grounds of the negotiation, which, as they have been detailed in another place, would be tedious and unnecessary

unnecessary to relate: he avowed in very strenuous terms the sincerity of ministers, fully proved (he said) by the concessions which they had made, merely to obtain peace: we had offered to France all that we had conquered in the West Indies, the strong Island of Martinique, St. Lucia, Tobago, that part of St. Domingo occupied by our troops; in the East Indies, Pondicherry and Chandernagore, with all their settlements and factories in that quarter. And in return for what were all these sacrifices offered? for peace alone! to an enemy too, whose forces had never separately met the military strength of this country without adding to our national glory and renown—an enemy whose fleets had never encountered ours, but to increase the list of their defeats—an enemy whose commerce was extinguished, whose navy was annihilated, whose financial distress, however palliated by their partisans here, was loudly proved in the groans of the people, in the contentions of the councils, and in the acts of violence of the executive government. Of the allies, Spain had felt the war into which she had been compelled to enter, only in the triumphs she had added to this country, and her own disgrace. One island had been taken from her by us, for which, in the circumstances she stood, she could have no claim for compensation: but the island Trinidad was claimed on another ground, as a condition of our guaranteeing the cession of the Spanish part of St. Domingo to France, which, by solemn treaties, could not be given up without the consent of this country. To Holland we offered to restore all the sources of her commerce, every thing valuable to her prosperity; and only required that which would

have enabled France to subjugate the other possessions of Holland, and to harass our own establishments in the East. All that we demanded was, to secure what we already possessed, that which was essential to our ancient establishment and naval power. On reviewing the state of the two countries, let the world judge the value of the concession on one part, and the force of the claim upon the other: compare the mutual means of offence and resistance, the power of the French to take from us, and the ability of this country to retain; and upon that comparison decide whether the *projet* of his majesty did not manifest proofs of sincerity and moderation?

The chancellor of the exchequer proceeded here to make a statement of the arrogance and the duplicity of the French. Endless delays ensued, he said, to give a colour of attention to the wishes of their nation for peace: time was consumed in sending for instructions to Madrid, and to the Hague; and the consideration of the different points studiously protracted: after the negotiation had assumed this shape, what was done, what progress was made, when every pretence for delay was removed? They then required that we, whom they had summoned to treat for a definitive treaty, should stop and discuss preliminary points, which though discussed and settled, we did not know but the next moment might be wholly laid aside. They led the conferences to vague and secondary points; insisted that his majesty should resign the title of king of France—a harmless feather at least, which his ancestors had so long worn on their crowns; they demanded restitution of the ships taken at Toulon, or a compensation;

penfation ; and a renunciation of any mortgage which this country might poffefs for the loan to the emperor. The French plenipotentiaries were immediately informed that this country had no fuch mortgage ; that there could be no conceffion where there was no claim ; and that the point was not worth talking about.

We next were called upon to fubfcribe as a preliminary, that we were prepared to give up every thing we had acquired during the war. Such a preliminary could not be admitted by any man who was not difpofed to adore the idol of the French power in prostrate bafe- nefs. His majefty did not hesitate in refufing to comply with fuch in- folent demands.

The directory, however, did not then adhere to the extravagance of them ; a long delay to amufe their people took place : they pleaded it as a proof of the fincerity of their pacific intentions, and pretended that they were under the neceffity of fending to their allies an account of what paffed, that they were endeavouring to prevail upon them to put an end to the calamities of a war into which they had brought thofe allies, and who have ever fince been in a ftate of abject fub- jection to them, whatever import- ance they affected to give them in this negotiation. They then di- rected their plenipotentiaries to in- form Lord Malmefbury that they had obtained an answer, but it was not fatisfactory ; and they were obliged to fend another melfenger.

It was thus they concealed their infincerity til the dreadful cata- ftrophe of the 4th of September ; and even fome days after that violence broke out in Paris, they promifed to produce their *projet*—ftill pacific in their profeflions, and inimical in

their defigns. The ftep which they took after this laft affurance was, to renew in a more offensive form the demand which had been rejected by lord Malmefbury two months before ; in which rejection they had acquiefced, and we in the interval had been waiting for the propofals which were to come from them. This demand was, that lord Malmefbury fhould fhew to them his powers, his inftructions, and the ufe he was to make of them : as an inducement to comply with this modelt requifition, they affured him, that though this demand was made, it would never be urged to carry it into effect. Mr. Pitt faid, there appeared little reafon for cen- furing minifters for not trufting fuch affurances from fuch an en- emy. He would leave others to imagine what was likely to have been the end of a negotiation in which it was a preliminary to refign every thing—in which it was de- manded to reveal every thing re- quired ; that our ambaffador fhould make known, not only his powers but his inftructions, before even they had explained a word of theirs ; and whilft they informed us, that we were not to expect to hear what their powers were until we profefled ourfelves ready to accede to any thing which the directory might please to dictate. Lord Malmefbury returned for answer, that his powers were ample : they then went no further than to fay, if he could not fhew his inftructions, he fhould fend to England for the power ; to which he replied, that he fhould not have it, if he fent. In this they feemingly acquiefced, and amufed us for two months ; at the end of which time the pleni- potentiaries fay, not what they faid before—fend to England for powers to accede to propofals which you have

have already rejected, but go to England yourself for powers to obtain peace. Such was the manner in which the prospect of peace was to be opened and broken off; for the gross attempt to deceive all Europe by the affectation of moderation, in ordering the French ministers to remain at Lille for ten days, was unworthy a comment: they said they expected an ambassador to return; they knew it was impossible he should after their stating as a *sine qua non*, that we should throw ourselves at their feet for mercy before we knew what terms they should be in the humour to dictate to us. But it is essential that we should know (continued Mr. Pitt) the real aim of the enemy: it is not our commerce, it is not our wealth, it is not our colonies in the west, or our territories in the east, nor is it our maritime greatness, or the extent of our empire: No! the object is *our liberty!* the basis of our independence, the citadel of our happiness—*our constitution!* They themselves have declared it—openly avowed that our government and theirs cannot subsist together, and their endeavour is to destroy it. Should they come amongst us, they would bring with their invading army the great pestilence to man, the genius of French liberty, which contains in it every curse to society. In the place of our glorious principles and equal laws will be a hideous monster whom nothing can content but the annihilation of the British empire. And are we under circumstances to be afraid or ashamed to declare in a firm and manly tone, that we will defend ourselves? are we to shun the truth, and forget the energy which belongs to Englishmen? If therefore we value property, liberty, law; if we value national

power or domestic happiness, we shall resist these demands with indignation. There was not a man (he said), let his enjoyments be ever so considerable, who ought not to sacrifice any portion of it to oppose the violence of the enemy; nor one whose stock was so small that he should not be ready to sacrifice his life in the same cause. We owed it in gratitude to Providence, whose goodness had placed us so high in the scale of nations, and caused us to be the admiration of Europe, with most of the governments of which ours was a happy contrast. The means of our safety were still in our hands; our blessings were many; and the preservation of them was our highest duty. He trusted that we never should abandon it, to whatever extremity we might be driven; but cheerfully enter into a pledge for the sincere performance of it, declaring our determination to stand or fall by the laws, liberties, and religion of our country.

Mr. Pollen, after complimenting the minister on his eloquent and able speech, professed his belief in the sincerity on our part during the late negotiation; he imputed its failure solely to the French government, whose power the sudden return of peace must inevitably have overthrown. Of many of the past measures of the ministry he had disapproved, but he now felt the necessity of throwing a veil over the past: when we looked forward, the prospect was too serious to permit us to waste time in vain regrets: we now were called to a situation which required all our intrepidity and all our firmness. There was no longer a question of consuming our strength in an unavailing struggle to maintain the balance of power and the former system of European politics.

politics. A more urgent care pressed home on our feelings, and should engage our whole attention. The danger was imminent, and every thing valuable was to be defended—our laws, our liberties, and our constitution, which it was the fixed object of the enemy to overturn; and above all we had to deprecate and prevent what would cover us with inextinguishable shame—the permitting the French to invade our kingdom, violate our females, and enslave our children. The address had his most cordial support.

Mr. Martin much applauded the speech of Mr. Pitt; it was more convincing, he said, than any he had heard upon the subject: indeed, if the French would have acceded to any reasonable terms, it was his opinion that they should not be rejected; but when he saw they were determined to dictate the conditions, we ought not to permit ourselves to be trampled on, but evince the spirit which became a great nation. He thought the present amendment unnecessary, and that the original address was more consonant to the nature of our present circumstances.

Mr. N. Edwards rose to say, that in his county, Rutlandshire, the best possible disposition prevailed amongst the inhabitants, and that the lord lieutenant of it was distinguished for the institution of the yeomanry corps. In many of the villages he knew, from personal observation, and from repeated assurance, that the people were ready to make every sacrifice for the defence of the country. There were a body of villagers, to the number of more than a thousand, prepared to come forward whenever danger threatened, and to defend our frontiers: this, perhaps, might be deem-

ed a piece of information of too private a nature to be mentioned in the house; but he brought it as a symptom of the zeal and alacrity which animated that part of England.

Mr. Lloyd rose to express, he said, his detestation of the perfidious conduct of the directory: and although the county of Flint, as a mineral county, suffered in a particular manner from the continuance of the war (it having almost entirely put an end to the lead trade), yet there would not be found in the kingdom a set of men more ready to oppose the tyrannic rulers of France, or more willing to repel their attacks, than those men whom he had the honour to represent.

Lord Carysford cordially concurred in the sentiments of the address: the French system was set up for the annoyance of Europe, and Europe could bear witness to the moderation and justice of our cause. Our resistance was pointed against the exorbitant pretensions of the enemy; and it was in unison with the principles upon which we had acted from the beginning, as we had uniformly declared, that whatever form their government might assume we would not decline entering into any negotiation consistent with the honour and security of this kingdom. To this pledge we strictly had adhered; and the system of moderation upon which we had proceeded should unite all men of every description in a cordial and vigorous defence of our laws, rights, and constitution. Such an unanimous co-operation would have the double good effect of silencing the calumnies which were circulated abroad by the enemy, and of reviving our spirits at home, if indeed they were permitted to droop.—There was nothing in our situation

to excite despair; and whence could it arise? from the empty threats held out against us by the French? We had tried their strength in many conflicts, and the trials were crowned with complete success. France had aspired to universal dominion, but their attempts had always been repressed by the valour of this country. One circumstance, it was true, seemed to justify our alarms for the continuance of the war—it was an unproductive contest: we had much to lose, and nothing to gain; nor could we expect to make any successful impression on the enemy's territories; but we had already conquered all their foreign possessions, though any attempt on France herself was not likely to succeed: and any on their part respecting an invasion of England would prove equally impotent and ineffectual. He was sorry to see that Ireland was in a different situation; but notwithstanding its present disturbances, and the attacks of the French, he was satisfied they would meet with the same reception as on a former occasion, if they endeavoured to land there. He expressed his wishes that the house would carry to the throne full and forcible assurances of their united determination to exert the vigour, and call forth the resources of a country, not to be equalled by any other nation in Europe.

Dr. Lawrence, in a long and elaborate speech, blamed the minister for having offered so much to the French as the price of peace. If the directory had accepted the terms which were offered, in what a situation (he said) should we now have been! Had our project of a definitive treaty been then signed, how should we now have stood? Did they not still profess the same principles which we so often pronounced

fatal to all regular establishments? did they not uniformly act upon them? were they not as ready as ever to pour forth their hordes, to propagate them with the bayonet through every other nation? Had the negotiation succeeded should we not now have been left upon the good faith of a power which never had regarded any compact, any obligation, any public law of Europe?

No peace with men of such opinions could be secure till they knew that we had the ability to resist and avenge every infringement of it; nor was that ability to be displayed by a passive system of defence, but by pursuing the war with spirit and resolution.

It had been said that we had better give up for ever the right of searching neutral vessels, and make that concession the ground of a new defensive league, than wait to have it extracted from us. But the day in which any such treaty should be signed would be fatal to England. It was to our naval power that we owed the rank which we held as a nation—our maritime superiority which had hitherto enabled us to maintain the balance of European power, not to alarm and subjugate other kingdoms, but for the preservation and general benefit of all. If once we gave up the clear undoubted right, which even America in her present dispute with France had recognised, of stopping and searching the vessels of countries in peace with us, our naval force would have little against which it could operate in any future war. An enemy unable to meet us in arms on the ocean, by surrendering his navigation, might secure his whole commerce in neutral ships from our victorious force; and it was chiefly by distressing his commerce that a naval power could so act

act as to compel a peace. It was thus by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, Louis the XV. was contented to restore all his conquests that he might be released from the pressure of our maritime power on the trade of his kingdom. Dr. Lawrence said, he thought it his duty to call the attention of the house and the nation to the danger which lurked under the specious language of "the freedom of the seas," which we had been recommended to acknowledge, as if the right which we had invariably exercised was an act of usurpation and injustice. There was one point more which he thought it proper to notice; the chancellor of the exchequer had called his majesty's title of king of France a harmless feather. In his own opinion, no ancient dignity, which for so many centuries had shed lustre on the English crown, ought to be considered as a mere light unsubstantial ornament. If we suffered that feather to be plucked, he feared that three other feathers, which were nearly connected with the crown, would soon follow. A great nation could never safely submit to be disgraced. He wished the house to recollect the time when that title was first used; in the reign of Edward III. then it was that we had the first full regular record of the proceedings in parliament. Whether it was from the peculiar favour of Providence that we might have always before us an example to fix our wavering courage in moments of terror; but so the fact was, that the first conferences of the two houses, which appear upon the rolls, are of that epoch, and exhibit a situation of the country far less favourable than the present in every thing but the spirit of Englishmen. Allowing for the relative value of money, much larger sums had then

been spent in gaining the princes and states of the Netherland to our side than in the present war; yet no reliance could be placed on the allies whom we had so gained. No effectual aid was derived from their co-operation, and, in fact, they soon after deserted us. Commerce we had none; our revenue was not to be mentioned; then, as now, we were obliged to resort to an issue of foreign coin, to supply our circulation. We had scarcely any specie of our own. We had acquired nothing from the enemy; we had lost our natural dominion of the sea, our coasts were insulted and plundered. Harwich had been set on fire, the Isle of Thanet, Folkestone, and Dover, had suffered more lightly, Hastings more severely. Southampton had been burnt to the ground: a great part of Plymouth, with all the great ships in that harbour, shared the same fate; and the Isle of Jersey had been conquered (as the records of the house confessed) to the great slander of the land. Within our own island, the Scots, not as now united to us, but the fast allies of our enemies, were threatening our borders, whilst in many of our counties and cities existed a desperate knot of conspirators, bound together by oath, upon the first intelligence of those disasters which they wished to their country, to rise in a general insurrection to rob and massacre their peaceable neighbours. What then was the conduct of parliament? the commons resolved that the government had sufficient power to protect the internal peace of the land; they proposed methods of external defence; they agreed in the necessity of a large supply, and they declared their own good will to grant what the exigencies of the state demanded. But to give greater effect

effect to the measure, they advised that another parliament should be summoned, and promised on their loyalty to retire each into his own country, and there use all their influence to bring up the public mind to the exigences of the present situation. And what was the result? what was the conclusion of a war of twenty years? a peace dictated by Edward as he was marching back from the siege of Paris. Upon that glorious example Englishmen should fix their eyes, gaze, till they kindled into the zeal and intrepidity which glowed in the hearts, and distinguished the conduct, of our ancestors. What would be the event of our present contest was only known to that Being who sees every thing in their first causes and ultimate consequences. It was our part to discharge our duty with fortitude in obedience to his moral law; and what that duty was no man could hesitate to pronounce—danger with glory, or ruin with disgrace. He concluded by pointing out to the honourable baronet, who moved the amendment, his total want of support, and joined in the requests which had already been made to him, to withdraw the motion.

Mr. Wilberforce said, that he coincided in regretting an amendment had been proposed, and wished that nothing had been said expressive of a want of unanimity. It appeared, however, that with this exception all assented to the address, though with different views. For himself, he must say, that he could not lament that the negotiation had been commenced, nor rejoice that it was broken off; on the contrary, he sincerely regretted with the king's minister, and the people at large, that it had such an unprosperous issue. So far from rejoicing

at the obstinate temper of the enemy, he thought it matter of serious concern; and he looked out with anxiety to the time, when, under the influence of returning reason, the French nation would negotiate with an earnest desire of that peace which was still more necessary to them than to ourselves. In the meantime he would tell the people that they must content themselves to bear considerable burdens, because all they possessed, and all that was valuable to them in life, was at stake; that as the conduct of the enemy proclaimed that the failure of the negotiation proceeded not from the king's ministers, but their own ambition, Englishmen should feel the necessity of coming forward to preserve their constitution, should reflect on what their happiness depended; and to secure those objects, should join hand and heart together, proclaiming to the world, that however divided before, they would unite for general safety. Of this universal harmony of sentiment he thought the unanimity of that night a happy omen, and he hoped the honourable baronet would withdraw his amendment, in order to give that beginning its full force.

Sir John Sinclair said, that he had not proposed it without due consideration, but he candidly confessed he was not insensible to the weight of the arguments he had just heard. He sincerely wished for unanimity, and assured the house that he was willing to sacrifice not only his opinion, but any thing else which he possessed, to the welfare of the country; and would therefore cheerfully withdraw his motion.

The amendment was then withdrawn, and the address passed nem. con.

CHAP. II.

Bill for restraining the Payment of Cash at the Bank continued. Produce of the Taxes for 1797. Army Estimates and Supplies for 1798. Account of the first Budget and the Ways and Means. Treble Assessment Bill. The Outline of it as passed into a Law. Debates upon it. The Resolution agreed to. Read a first time. Debates on the second reading—On the third reading. Introduced into the House of Lords, and passed. Debate on Mr. Nichol's Motion, that the Salaries of certain Officers shall be applied towards carrying on the War. Mr. Coke's Motion for limiting the Fees of the Tellers of the Exchequer for a certain time—rejected.

IF the political business of the session was little interesting and little important, the magnitude of the details respecting the national finances have amply compensated for this deficiency. The year 1798 may be considered as the termination of the funding system in this country; a system which was now found inadequate to the emergencies of the times, and could no longer support the enormous weight which, without a new plan of political economy, it would have been necessary to lay upon it.

Nov. 15. The first financial measure of the chancellor of the exchequer this session, was a motion for a committee to inquire into the expediency of continuing the restriction upon the bank, which had been laid in the preceding session by an act, intitled "An act for confirming and continuing, for a limited time, the restriction contained in the minute of council of the 26th of February, 1797." He pointed out many obvious circumstances which rendered the adoption of this measure necessary. Mr. Husley, in a subsequent stage of the bill, contended against the necessity of the restraint which had been laid upon the bank, with respect to payments in specie, and urged several

arguments to prove the present measure to be replete with the most dangerous consequences, and could by no means reconcile to his mind the idea of continuing the restriction to the extent of time proposed, one month after the close of the present war. The minister replied, that, though by the bill the restriction was nominally continued during the war, still it empowered the bank, at any intermediate period, to resume its payments in cash, by communicating its intention to the speaker of the house of commons, and giving one month's notice. It was necessary, he said, to hold out to the enemy, that the country was prepared to meet all the efforts of desperation; but it did not follow that the restriction would be continued during the whole war. The bill afterwards went through the several stages in both houses with little further opposition, and was passed into a law.

Previous to the accustomed detail of the supplies, and ways and means, for 1798, the reader will probably not be displeased with the following statement of the total amount of customs, excise, stamps, and duties, for one year, ending the 10th of October, 1797, which were laid before the house:

Customs,

		£.
Customs, excise, and stamps	- - - - -	11,509,030
Incidents	- - - - -	1,831,606
Duties imposed in 1793	- - - - -	209,101
Ditto in 1794	- - - - -	914,241
Ditto in 1795	- - - - -	1,152,626
Ditto in 1796	- - - - -	1,096,990
Ditto in 1797	- - - - -	762,044
Total - - £.		17,473,638

The total charge on the consolidated fund for one quarter, }
 ending 10th of October, 1797, was - - - - - } 4,304,838
 Surplus of ditto for the same, was - - - - - 857,101

£. 5,161,939

On the 20th of November, the house having formed itself into a committee of supply, the secretary at war moved the usual resolutions on the army estimates. A charge, he said, had taken place this year, upon several articles which was not proportional to the articles themselves. This circumstance originated in the increase of pay voted to the officers and soldiers in the preceding year, which had created an obvious increase of expense. Notwithstanding this increase on the face of the estimate, he was happy to state to the house, that, compared with the estimate of last year, there was in the sum total a saving of about 652,000*l.* But to ascertain the real difference of the expense of last year and the present, it was necessary to take out of the estimate that sum which was classed last year among the army extraordinary: this sum was 500,000*l.* so that the difference of the estimate amounted to 952,000*l.* This was not all; another change had taken place, arising out of the increase of pay last year. Troops on foreign stations were furnished by government with provisions, and on this account 2*d* per day for each man

was stopped, in consequence of the new regulation of pay. This sum might be supposed to be 100,000*l.*; making in all, with the former two articles of 652,000 and 300,000*l.* a saving of above one million.

The whole of the regular force, he said, would amount to 78,627 men. These consisted of guards and garrisons, that is, the regular forces in Great Britain, and the Isles of Guernsey and Jersey, which amounted to 48,609 men, and of the troops in the plantations, including all other regular force, except that in Ireland and the East Indies, amounting to 30,018 men. The militia and fencibles had been a little reduced, and amounted to about 55,291 men. The fencible cavalry would bear some reduction, as several of them had been sent to Ireland; these, however, amounted to about 6911 men, making in all, of regular and irregular force, 140,829 men.

In consequence of the suggestion of the committee of finance, it was proposed to change the fees which had been hitherto received into fixed salaries. For his own part, however, he doubted whether this would be a real advantage to the public.

It had been falsely represented, as if the fees at present amounted to a permanent and regular sum. Nothing could be more erroneous. They depended upon peace or war, and varied even during the years of war. The secretary concluded with moving the first resolution, relative to the amount of the troops under the denomination of guards and garrisons. Upon this question, general Fitzpatrick arose and suggested a material alteration in the mode of recruiting the army. It had often been observed, he said, that in this country, where we boasted of so high a degree of liberty, the condition of the soldier was worse than in any other place in Europe. Here the soldier was bound to serve for life. In other parts of Europe the service was limited. He urged several reasons why the period of service should be fixed, the principal of which was humanity, as it

was well known that men were too frequently entrapped into the service. This idea was not new; he had voted for such a measure twenty years ago, when brought forward by colonel Barré, and then the period of service was fixed at six years: if that bill had then passed, the nation would now have felt an additional security in knowing that there were spread over the country a large body of men accustomed to the use of arms.

The secretary at war objected strongly to the measure thus proposed by the hon. general; and the several resolutions of supply were then moved and carried.

The house again formed itself into a committee of supply on the 22d of November, when the chancellor of the exchequer moved the following resolutions for the ensuing year, viz. That there be voted

For the civil establishment of Canada	-	-	-	-	£.
For Nova Scotia	-	-	-	-	7,150
For New Brunswick	-	-	-	-	5,915
For the Island of St. John	-	-	-	-	4,550
For Cape Breton	-	-	-	-	1,900
For Newfoundland	-	-	-	-	1,840
For Bermudas	-	-	-	-	1,232
For the Bahama Islands	-	-	-	-	580
For Dominica	-	-	-	-	4,100
For New South Wales	-	-	-	-	600
For the suffering clergy and laity of France	-	-	-	-	6,157
For pensions and allowances to the American royalists	-	-	-	-	168,000
For secret service abroad	-	-	-	-	44,000
For bills that are or may become due for the settlement of New South Wales	-	-	-	-	150,000
For maintaining convicts at home	-	-	-	-	36,000
For bills on Douglas harbour	-	-	-	-	33,325
	-	-	-	-	2,500

On the 24th of November, Mr. Pitt introduced what may be called his *first budget*, for in April he brought up another. He stated to the committee the general outline

of the measures which he proposed as the foundation for raising the supplies, and for meeting the exigences of the ensuing year. As the principle of that part of the intended

intended plan to which he was most desirous to direct the attention of the committee was new in the financial operations of this country, at least for more than a century, he did not then call for a decision upon the business, but went fully into an explanation of it. The question was, by what means the house was to provide for the annual expenses in such a manner as to enable the country successfully to resist the avowed intentions of an arrogant foe to destroy its liberties and constitution, to cut off the sources of its wealth, its independence, and glory? The house, in pledging itself to support the honour and interest of the country at every hazard, had acted from the dictates of sober reflection, and spoken the language of indignant feeling. He then stated, under the usual heads, the amount of the supplies which would be required. He began with the sums which would be necessary for the service of the navy. There had already been voted for this branch the sum of 12,539,000l.; and the estimates for the present year had been made out in a new form, intended, with more correctness than formerly, to present a full view of the expense that would be necessary. Instead of the former allowance of 4l. per month, which was found to be inadequate, the full expense had been taken into view. But even in their present shape the estimates were not to be considered as so accurate as to exclude the possibility of any excess. Besides the above-mentioned sum, there was a navy debt, owing to the excess of the preceding year above the estimate, amounting to three millions. This, however, formed no part of the expense for which it was then necessary to make a cash provision. It would only be requisite to pro-

vide a sum equal to the interest; and in the then state of the funds, that provision could not be calculated at less than 250,000l. By a regulation adopted the year before, to prevent the depreciation of navy and exchequer bills, by providing that the period of payment should never be very distant from their date, there would be on their monthly issue of 500,000l. a floating debt of 1,500,000l. to be funded, arising out of the excess of the estimates for the year 1787. There would likewise be a similar sum of 1,500,000l. falling due in the year 1799; but for these no cash provision was necessary, nor were they included in the supplies to be raised. The sum of 12,539,000l. was all that entered into the account of the supplies under this branch for the ensuing year.

The expense for the army, excepting only barracks and extraordinary, had likewise been voted. This article he took at four millions, besides the vote of credit, making an excess of about 1,300,000l. at the end of the year. The account of the extraordinary was taken at 2,500,000l. The charge under the head of barracks was estimated at 400,000l. The expense of guards and garrisons, and the general articles included under this head, had already been voted, amounting to 10,112,000l. The ordnance, he said, might be taken at 1,300,000l. and the various articles of miscellaneous service at 673,000l. There remained only two articles to be noticed, the sum of 200,000l. appropriated for the reduction of the national debt, and about 680,000l. arising from deficiencies of grants. From the whole then, it appeared, that the sum now to be provided for was about *twenty-five millions and a half*. Supposing

the statements of the expense of the army and navy to be correct, there would be a reduction on these branches to the extent of two millions and a half; and including the reduction on the head of extraordinary, the savings upon the whole amounted to the sum of 6,700,000*l.* But notwithstanding this diminution there still remained the above-mentioned sum of 25,500,000*l.* to be provided for, as the *supplies* of the ensuing year. He then proceeded to state the usual articles which composed part of the annual *ways and means*. These were the growing produce of the consolidated fund, and the land and malt. The former he took along with the lottery, at so very small a sum as 700,000*l.*; making, with the land and malt, the sum of three millions and a half. There then remained the sum of twenty-two millions to be supplied by some other means. After considering the burdens which had already been imposed upon the people, and the sums which had been added to the national debt, it would be found to be no light matter to raise such a sum. In the first place, however, the bank would agree to advance on exchequer bills, to be repaid at short periods, the sum of three millions. According to the received system of our finances, the ordinary mode of providing for the remaining 19 millions of the supplies would be by a loan. But in lieu of this he should propose a new mode; namely, that of raising, by a general tax, seven millions of this sum within the year. The other twelve millions, he said, he should propose to raise by the usual way of loan.

It had been understood for a considerable time, that a great increase of the assessed taxes was in

agitation. He then went into a long detail of his intended plan. Those who contributed to the assessed taxes composed a number of about 7 or 800,000 house-keepers and masters of families, including a population of nearly four millions, on whom the proposed sum would be raised. The number of those who were not included at all, on account of their poverty, he estimated at 500,000 house-keepers and masters of families, covering a population of between two and three millions.

The assessed taxes, as far as could be ascertained, amounted to about 2,700,000*l.* Therefore the proposed additional assessment would amount, on the whole sum of the assessed taxes, to something less than a treble contribution. If he had not been deceived in the inquiries he had made, the greatest contribution would not exceed a tenth of the income of the highest class of those by whom it was to be paid; and no man would think such a sacrifice too great for such a cause. To prevent evasion, he proposed, that not future but past assessments should be made the basis of the new contribution: because, *prima facie*, the most impartial evidence that can be obtained, of the ability of each individual to contribute to the exigencies of the state, was the amount of his expenditure of income before he had any temptation to lower it, in order to elude taxation. After having given the outlines of his plan for the treble assessment, he adverted to the remaining sum of twelve millions, to be raised by loan. Four millions, he said, might be borrowed without making any additional debt, for the sinking fund would pay that sum.

For the other eight millions he proposed

proposed a different provision; namely, that the increased assessed taxes be continued till the principal and interest be completely discharged; so that after seven millions should be raised for the ensuing year, the same taxes in one year more, with the additional aid of the sinking fund, would pay off all that principal and intermediate interest. His propositions, therefore, if carried into effect, would not only furnish a current supply, but quicken the redemption of the national debt. "This (he said) would speak a language to the enemy that, by cooling the ardour of their expectations, and showing them the absurdity of their designs, would afford the best chance of shortening the duration of the war, and of lessening the duration and weight of our taxes." He acquiesced in

what had so often been said, that it would have been *fortunate if the practice of funding had never been introduced*; and, that it was not terminated, was much to be lamented; but if the nation was arrived at a moment which required a change of system, it was some encouragement for the people to look forward to benefits, which on all former occasions had been unknown, because the means of obtaining them had been neglected. He concluded with moving, "That it was the opinion of the committee, that there should be paid a duty, not exceeding treble the amount of the duties imposed by several acts of parliament now in force, on houses and windows, &c. &c."

For the sake of perspicuity, the following recapitulation is given of Mr. Pitt's calculations.

SUPPLIES.

	£.
Navy - - - - -	12,539,000
Army - - - - -	10,112,000
Ordnance - - - - -	1,291,000
Miscellaneous services - - - - -	674,000
Reduction of debt - - - - -	200,000
Deficiency of grants - - - - -	680,000
Total -	<u>£.25,496,000</u>

WAYS AND MEANS.

	£.
Growing produce of the consolidated fund - - - - -	750,000
Land and malt - - - - -	2,750,000
Exchequer bills - - - - -	3,000,000
New loan - - - - -	12,000,000
Increase on assessed taxes - - - - -	7,000,000
Total -	<u>£.25,500,000</u>

Mr. Tierney rose, and declared, that after having heard the speech just made by the chancellor of the

exchequer, he could never again face his constituents with confidence, if, by remaining silent, he

gave it any sort of countenance. He trusted that the minister was now become sensible of his former inaccuracies. He had stated in the preceding session, that the new sources of supply he then proposed would not only make up for former deficiencies, but would amply meet the expenses of the current year; and yet the issuing of *navy bills*, one part of his plan, had increased the calculation one million and a half: he had proposed five millions for the *extraordinaries* of the *navy*; and yet with this sum voted, which he considered as a most ample supply, it now appeared that he had formed erroneous calculations, to the amount of three millions; for the expenses of the navy had exceeded the estimate to the extent of that sum. He opposed the minister's proposal of the bank's advancing three millions, in the same manner as he had opposed the measure lately adopted by the house, for continuing the bankruptcy of the bank. He wished to be satisfied upon what grounds the bank refused the people payment in specie, whilst at the same time it increased its advances to government. The present measure would occasion an emission of paper to a considerable increased extent; and he was afraid it would have this tendency, that it would be expected of the bank to advance still more and more, whenever future demands were made upon it.

With regard to the measure of raising seven millions towards the supply, by additional taxes within the year, he contended that it would have an effect upon the enemy, very different from what the chancellor of the exchequer had supposed in his statement to the house; for it would serve to show that our funding system was, in the

opinion even of the minister, approaching its end. They would see the same man, who had brought his country to the extremity of ruin, now virtually confessing his inability to pursue former methods of raising the supplies, and crouching, as it were, to the bank to help him out of his difficulties. He asked, what was to be done in the next year of the war? For with the present administration, he held it impossible the country could have peace: the right honourable gentleman wanted the requisites to bring about a peace; he wanted the confidence and respect not only of France, but of Europe. It was impossible that France could have any confidence in the pacific disposition of the present cabinet, composed as it was of men avowedly united by no other bond of union than that of hatred to the French republic. "In what congress could an English ambassador sit, deputed by the present administration, which must not present to him the plenipotentiaries of courts which had either insulted, deceived, or deserted, his employers."

Mr. Nicholls and Mr. Curwen also opposed the plan of the minister. The former observed, that it had been stated by the right honourable gentleman, that in consequence of his measures, the number of stockholders had been increased all over the country. He allowed the truth of that statement; but considered it as one of the calamities of the present war, and the funding system by which it had been carried on, that their number was increased. Hence no money could be raised by the tradesman for the purposes of his business; while the money borrowed by government was enormous in amount, and borrowed

rowed at enormous interest, the trade of the country must be extremely prejudiced. In fact, there was now instituted a monopoly more severe, more oppressive than any monopoly that had ever prevailed: it was the monopoly of borrowing, entirely vested in the hands of government. He took this opportunity of giving notice to the house, that if the chancellor of the exchequer should persevere in his present plan, he would hereafter make a motion, for compelling *placemen* and *pensioners* to bear a very large part of the burdens to be imposed by it. Those gentlemen might recollect a resolution adopted in the reign of queen Anne, that no placemen or pensioner should receive more than five hundred pounds a year during the war. He concluded by observing, that if the minister's plan was adopted, and seven millions were raised within the year, and seven millions more within a year and a quarter, he was convinced the consequences would be, that the middle classes of house-keepers would be completely crushed.

Mr. Curwen contended that the war was no longer a war of necessity; and it became gentlemen to consider, whether as a war of indemnity, that indemnity was worth the price at which it was to be bought. Peace without indemnity, he believed, might have been obtained long before. It was not a war in which Great Britain was compelled to enter for any injury sustained by herself; it was merely on account of her allies, the Dutch, and to procure indemnity for them, that we entered into the war.

Mr. Dundas and Mr. Vansittart offered several arguments to prove that the French had been called upon to state their terms; but had

absolutely refused any answer to our *projet*; that it was not any difference about terms that broke off the negotiations for peace, but the implacable hatred of the enemy against this government;—that they demanded indeed that we should begin by giving up every thing that we had taken in the course of the war, and then they would condescend to tell us what more they had to ask.

The house having resolved itself into a committee on the 4th of December, the chancellor of the exchequer stated the particulars of his plan for increasing the assessed taxes, of which before he had only given the outline. He began with reminding the committee that he had stated the product of the assessed taxes at present to be 2,700,000*l*. Some had not been collected hitherto; but he believed that they would not fall short of their estimate, which was taken at 600,000*l*. These were the additional assessments of the preceding session, of which the actual returns had not then been made. He apprised the committee, that the assessed taxes consisted of two descriptions, which deserved a separate consideration. The first comprehended the tax on houses, windows, the commutation tax, and the two additional 10 per cent. duties upon the amount of these; making in all the sum of 150,000*l*. This was but a small proportion of the whole sum collected by the assessed taxes; and it showed that care had been taken to avoid too hard a pressure upon those whose circumstances would not bear it. The other description contained all the same charges upon houses, windows, the commutation act, and the 20 per cent. additional duties; while 1,300,000*l*. was raised upon male servants, horters,

horses, carriages, dogs, and watches. It was his intention, therefore, as these were chiefly articles of luxury, to triple the duties upon the latter, while he took care to have the proportions of the former modified. He next stated to the committee the different proportions of contribution which he proposed to affix to the different classes of those house-keepers, who came under his first description, of subscribing only to the house, window, and commutation taxes; he afterwards stated the different proportions of additional assessment, which those were to pay who came under his second description, of contributing not only to the house, window, and commutation taxes, but also to the taxes raised upon male servants, horses, carriages, dogs, and watches.

To detail at length the history of

the various alterations which the bill underwent in its various stages, would be tedious and uninteresting, and would carry this publication greatly beyond its usual limits. Let it suffice, therefore, to say that the following were the outlines of the bill when it was passed into a law, which were all founded upon Mr. Pitt's first propositions to the committee.

Persons paying assessed taxes were divided into three classes. The first class consisted of those persons paying for male servants, carriages, and horses, on or before the 6th of April 1798, and were to pay in the following proportions:

Where the old duties were under 25*l.* per annum, an additional duty equal to *three times* the present amount; that is to say, the additional sum of *seventy-five pounds*.

<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>	
From 25 to 30	per an.	3½ times the amount.
From 30 to 40	per an.	4 ditto.
From 40 to 50	per an.	4½ ditto.
From 50 and upwards		5 ditto.

The second class consisted of persons paying duties on houses, windows, dogs, clocks, and watches.

Where these taxes did not a-

mount to one pound, the persons were exempt from the additional duty.

Persons paying under 2*l.* were to pay an additional duty equal to *one fourth* of the present amount.

Persons paying 2*l.* and under 3*l.* *one half* the present amount.

Ditto	3 <i>l.</i> and under 5 <i>l.</i>	<i>three fourths</i> ditto.
Ditto	5 <i>l.</i> and under 7 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	<i>equal to</i> ditto.
Ditto	7 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i> and under 10 <i>l.</i>	<i>one and a half</i> ditto.
Ditto	10 <i>l.</i> and under 12 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	<i>twice</i> ditto.
Ditto	12 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i> and under 15 <i>l.</i>	<i>twice and a half</i> ditto.
Ditto	15 <i>l.</i> and under 20 <i>l.</i>	<i>three times</i> ditto.
Ditto	20 <i>l.</i> and under 30 <i>l.</i>	<i>three times and a half</i> ditto.
Ditto	30 <i>l.</i> and under 40 <i>l.</i>	<i>four times</i> ditto.
Ditto	40 <i>l.</i> to 50 <i>l.</i>	<i>four times and a half</i> ditto.
Ditto	50 <i>l.</i> and upwards,	<i>five times</i> ditto.

The

The third class consisted of persons keeping boarding schools (not less than ten boarders), ready-furnished or lodging houses, shops, and licensed victuallers.

Those persons of this class, the

amount of whose last assessment for duties on houses, windows, dogs, clocks and watches, did not amount to three pounds, were exempt from the additional duty.

Where the amount of such taxes was three pounds, and under five pounds, an addition *equal to one tenth* of the amount.

£. s.	£. s.	
5 0	and under 7 10	an addition of <i>one fifth</i> .
7 10	and under 10 0	ditto of <i>one fourth</i> .
10 0	and under 12 10	ditto of <i>one half</i> .
12 10	and under 15 0	ditto of <i>three fourths</i> .
15 0	and under 20 0	ditto equal to the <i>amount thereof</i> .
20 0	and under 25 0	ditto equal to <i>one and a quarter thereof</i> .
25 0	and under 30 0	ditto equal to <i>one and a half thereof</i> .
30 0	and upwards,	an additional duty equal to <i>twice</i> the present amount.

To this bill there was added also a scale of reduction of duties on account of income.

Persons whose annual income was less than 60*l.* upon a roof thereof were to be exempt from all additional duties.

Persons whose income amounted to 60*l.* and under 65*l.* were to pay an additional duty of only 120th part of such income. Those whose income was 100*l.* and under 105*l.* to pay an additional duty of one fortieth part, and so on, in an increasing ratio, to incomes of 200*l.* per annum and upwards, which were to pay an addition equal to the tenth part of such income. No abatement of the treble duty was to be allowed to persons with an income above 200*l.* per annum, unless they made a declaration upon oath, purporting that the charge exceeded one tenth of the party's income; because the chancellor of the exchequer, in his opening of the budget, had declared that he did not intend to burden an income of 200*l.* and upwards with more than an additional duty of one tenth part of such income.

He estimated the amount of this additional assessment at seven millions; and contended that there could not be a plan which embraced more necessary abatements, allowed more just and necessary exemptions, or which regulated the proportions of wealth, circumstance, and situation, with more fair and equal justice. The question was, ought we, or ought we not, to encounter great and extraordinary difficulties for the defence of our country, the preservation of our property, the safety of our families, the security of our freedom, and the innumerable other privileges which we enjoy? We ought to make any voluntary sacrifice, rather than submit to the insolent dominion of an enemy who would exist in our destruction; we ought rather to consent to the loss of our present ease, and the loss of a part of our property, however large, to enjoy repose in future with the remains, the whole of which would be otherwise completely swallowed up.

In the course of the debate which ensued upon the introduction of the bill, Sir W. Pulteney thought

the plan of raising the supplies of the year within the year was very proper, and therefore declared himself ready to support the proposition of the chancellor of the exchequer, as far as it went. But he was afraid that, notwithstanding every modification that could be suggested, there would still be a considerable inequality in the operation of the tax. There was no doubt but some men of large property spent less than men of inferior fortunes, and consequently would pay less to this tax.

He was inclined to carry this principle of providing the whole supply farther than the right hon. gentleman had done; and he was sure that the burden would be less felt by the community at large, if the plan had been formed upon a larger scale. In the first place, if the whole sum of twenty-one millions had been raised within the year, government would not have had occasion to borrow any money; and by that means individuals would have had it more in their power to have raised money upon their property than they had then, when the high interest given by government precluded them from borrowing at 5l. per cent. the legal interest of the country. It was well known that the consequence of monied men obtaining such large interest in the public funds was, that the country was in a manner drained of money. If the plan was adopted in the extent he proposed, this inconvenience would be avoided, and a great saving would be made; for government now paid 8 per cent. for money, and that expense of course fell upon the country at large. But it might, he confessed, with great propriety be asked, what security the public had, that, after advancing so large a sum

of money, it would be better disposed of than that which they had already given. The chancellor of the exchequer had stated, on a former night, that great reductions had been made in the expenditure of the country without diminishing its force. He had estimated this saving at six millions. Would not the people naturally ask why these six millions had not been saved before? It followed from hence that the public gave their money too readily and too liberally.

He then adverted to the war; and allowed that the enemy had spoken in a tone sufficiently high to rouse the spirit of every Englishman; but he did not approve of the idea of a defensive war, because he did not think it could be carried on longer with advantage to this country. What was the reason, he asked, that, at such a crisis as the present, we had not been able to preserve one ally? He disapproved of the lofty and imperious tone assumed by people in office to foreign powers, and was not surprised at those powers being offended at it. Why did we not endeavour at this time to stir up the powers of the continent, to support a cause in which they were much more interested than we were? He concluded with observing, that upon the grounds which he had stated, he should support this measure; though he should have done it with greater pleasure, if it had been carried to a greater extent.

The principal speakers in opposition, who opposed the bill upon its introduction into the house on the 4th of December, were Mr. Nicholls, Mr. Hobhouse, Mr. Tierney, and Mr. Plumer.

Mr. Nicholls objected to the measure, as it did not appear to him

him either just or necessary. If it was considered as a tax upon luxury, it was not just, because it was not optional; the tax was unjust, because it was retrospective. If it were considered as a tax upon expenditure, it was also unjust, because expenditure was not proportional to property. The chancellor of the exchequer had calculated, that a man who should pay thirty pounds, was a man of one thousand a year; the largest sum proposed to be paid was four hundred, and of this there were only two instances: according to this rule, then, there would be only two persons who spent thirteen thousand a year; and surely it would not be contended that there were not any more in this country of much more considerable fortune; but the right honourable gentleman had said, that it would be expedient to lighten our unfunded debt, and to raise the supplies within the year. This declaration came with a bad grace from a gentleman who had, during his administration, increased our national debt one half, by an addition of 185 millions. The tax, he said, would crush the middle orders of the people. He instanced the case of coach-makers, who would lose a considerable part of their employment by the adoption of the bill; they would be in the same situation as the watch-makers now were. He boldly asserted (notwithstanding a laugh against him) that this tax was not necessary, because the war was not necessary. Mr. Nicholls then alluded to the insincerity of ministers in their professing a desire for peace. Until they disavowed the opinions they expressed at the beginning of the war, he never would believe them sincere in their endeavours for its discontinuance. His reason was

this, some of them coincided in opinion with the late Mr. Burke; and his opinion was, that the representative government of France ought to be annihilated; for if not, French principles might be propagated here, and the commons might assume a power they did not possess before. To prove how far the opinion of Mr. Burke went, he read an extract from the 71st page of that gentleman's charges against Mr. Fox, and concluded with reprobating the unjust interference of peers in elections.

Mr. Hobhouse contended, that judging from past events, he could not think that the estimates of the chancellor of the exchequer were to be relied on. The excess of the preceding year, he said, in the single article of the navy, amounted to 3,000,000*l*. For this sum no provision was now made in the supplies, so that, independent of any other loan which might be necessary during the year, 28,500,000*l*. was to be raised. As to the ways and means, he observed that 2,750,000*l*. were to be raised in the usual manner, upon the land and malt tax. The growing surplus of of the consolidated fund and the lottery were taken together at 750,000*l*. But instead of boasting of the surplus of the consolidated fund, it would be more the language of truth to speak of its growing deficiency. By the papers on the table, it appeared that, in 1796 and 1797, there was a deficiency of more than 250,000*l*. Therefore some provision ought to be made for the amount of the deficit. He expressed his dislike of the close connexion between the bank of England and the government of the country, and thought it extremely curious that the bank directors, after having invariably attributed

buted all their former difficulties to the large supplies which they had been obliged to make to government, and after having shown such strong tokens of distrust of the chancellor of the exchequer, that they should give such renewed proofs of their confidence as to agree to the further advance of three millions towards the supplies of the current year. If they relied on the promise of the minister for speedy payment, it appeared from their own correspondence that they had been often disappointed. He then alluded to the seven millions to be raised by an assessment upon the assessed taxes. His principal objection to the plan proposed was, that it would fall unequally. Large capitalists who lived upon little, and continued from year to year to place the remainder out at interest, would pay but little, while the generous man who lived in a style equal to his rank in life, and by his expenditure promoted the subsistence and happiness of the tradesman, would be obliged to pay a large quota. The inequality of this tax was also discernible in its operation upon different classes. Those in the middling walks of life would pay a full tenth of their income, while those in the highest would not pay a fifteenth or twentieth. The largest sum at that time paid by any individual for assessed taxes was 400*l.* and upwards. This appeared by a paper which had been laid before the house a few days before. This measure would also fall unequally upon different trades; for many persons carried on trades in large buildings with less profits than those who carried them on in small counting-houses; the former must contribute a larger proportion than the latter.

Mr. Hobhouse next spoke to the

chancellor of the exchequer's plan of raising twelve millions by loan. It had been said that the sinking fund would in the course of the year 1798 be productive of a saving of four millions, which sum would cancel as much of the funded debt as the four millions, part of the twelve millions, would have created. The remaining eight millions he proposed to extinguish, by continuing the forced assessment fifteen months beyond the year 1798. This was surely a melancholy prospect for the country; if another supply should be wanting during the year 1798, or if the war should be prolonged beyond that year, the public would be paying the present assessment in discharge of a past debt, and have to provide millions upon millions besides; the triple would be tripled, and the quadruple be quadrupled. He concluded a long speech, by asserting that he would give a hearty negative to the proposed resolutions.

Mr. Tierney with great force of argument opposed the ministers plan of taxation, upon the ground of its falling so partially upon the subject. His observations upon the other ways and means for raising the supplies were very similar to those made by Mr. Hobhouse. In this long debate many allusions were made on both sides to the justice or injustice of the present war, irrelevant to a question of finance.

The committee divided on the first resolution,

Ayes	-	-	-	214
Noes	-	-	-	15

The bill was read a first time on the 7th of December. On the question that the bill be read a second time, it was acknowledged that the bill which had been brought in contained considerable abatements and modifications to the

the principle on which it went. But it was still strongly contended by several members, professed friends to the minister, that the adoption of the measure would bear down the middle order of manufacturers, who by long œconomy and labour had raised a small capital; among these was Mr. alderman Lushington, who was decidedly against over-burdening the middle class of society. He was for throwing the burden upon the upper classes. He should not care much that men from 5 to 10,000*l.* a year, and upwards, complained of their burden; but he should be sorry if those from 150*l.* to 200*l.* a year were oppressed. He thought that the operation of the measure in its present shape went to do away that middle class, and divide the state into the two descriptions of the very poor and the very rich. His idea in general upon the subject was, that he who paid less than 10*l.* a year of assessed taxes should not be included in the meaning of this bill. By imposing an additional half rate in the higher classes, he was convinced that the sum of six millions and a half might be raised without the odium and the danger of extending the tax so far to the lower and middling classes of society. He had the utmost confidence in the present administration, and thought they had as much talent and virtue as any set of men that could be found in the country. The further discussion of the bill took place on the 14th, when Mr. Pitt moved its second reading. Upon which Mr. Wigley said, he would not suffer the bill to proceed further, without such opposition as he was able to give it. The house would remember, that, at the opening of the session, the speech from the throne (which he considered as the speech of the

minister) stated that the resources of the country were ample, yet the present measure went to say, in contradiction to that speech, that the funding resource was exhausted; and that to avoid laying a greater weight upon it than it would bear, the people must submit to a novel, unprecedented, vexatious, and, to some classes, oppressive mode of taxation. As the voice of the country was then very loud against it, he had entertained some hopes that the minister would have abandoned it, and thought of some means of a better kind; but was sorry to find that it was his intention obstinately to persist in a measure so impolitic and unjust, which bore so heavy upon the middle ranks of the people, inasmuch as the lower and the higher were entirely exempt from it.

Mr. Henry Thornton said, that he had received the particular and unanimous instruction of his constituents to oppose the bill, at a meeting which had been held for that purpose, not only the particular provisions and modifications, but the principle of the bill, was also unanimously condemned. For his part, were he merely to speak his own sentiments, he would wish the bill to go into a committee, in order to see how far it might be new modelled, and rendered more palatable to all classes of people. Mr. York supported the measure, and reprobated as unconstitutional the doctrine of members of parliament being guided by the instructions of their constituents. Lord Hawkesbury also defended the bill, and contended, that whether the war was just and necessary was not then the subject of inquiry; that question had been frequently discussed, and the house had in that session come to an unanimous decision upon the late negotiation to which

which some gentlemen had alluded. The two great opponents of the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan, came forward, at the desire of their constituents, on this day, and displayed their usual abilities against this bill.

Mr. Sheridan rose first, and after making some remarks upon his and his right honourable friend's absenting themselves from the house, he entered into a long discussion of the question, whether the war was just and necessary, or unjust and unnecessary; but as the arguments used upon this occasion have often been detailed before, and as they are somewhat irrelevant to a question of finance, they are omitted here. Respecting the bill, he observed, that the people were now called upon to submit to great burdens; but when they are called upon to raise large sums, they should, in his opinion, have great examples to encourage them. They were told that their private interest was nothing; the public interest ought to be their only consideration. But with what propriety and consistency could this language be held by some members of administration, when it had been publicly stated, that in one office, that of the secretary of war, the clerks had fees and perquisites from the amount of 5,000*l.* to 18,000*l.* per annum. Some gentlemen might treat such perquisites as mere "parings of cheese and ends of candles" (alluding to a former speech of the right honourable secretary), but the public must wonder at the immense size of this consecrated cheese, and be dazzled with the light of those flaming tapers, that thus blaze on the altar of corruption. To show the impracticability of the plan of

taxation then before the house, he alluded to certain resolutions which had been voted that day by the city of London, which went to show that it was impossible for a very numerous class of householders ever to pay the tax, should the proposed mode of raising it be unfortunately passed into a law. Another objection to the tax was, that it meant to impose a tax on the expenditure, and not upon the property.

If the system was enforced, he contended that it would go to erect in every parish a fiscal inquisition to pry into the property of individuals, to ascertain their gains or their profits, and thus lay open and expose the improvement or decay of their circumstances. By the bill it appeared, that persons overrated might appeal; but to whom? To their own neighbours and fellow-parishioners, if any description of men should be found base enough to undertake so degrading an office. If the spies of government should doubt the word of those who appealed, they might then be examined upon oath, and evidence upon oath might also be brought to contradict their declaration. They would then be reduced to this dreadful situation, either to incur the suspicion of being perjured men, so strong were the temptations held out to them; or, if they made a fair avowal of their circumstances, and said that their income amounted to 200*l.* without taking into the account the accidental circumstances which might impair it, should it come to be impaired, and the next year it amounted but to 150*l.* either such persons must appeal, and divulge the decay of their circumstances, or must hold up a false front to those with whom they dealt; and, should they fail, be
accused

accused of having held out false pretences, for the purpose of supporting their credit by fraud.

When Mr. Fox rose, he avowed that his attendance that night was in consequence of what was to him at least an important sentiment; the propriety of yielding to the request of his constituents; they had desired him to attend this bill, and he thought himself bound to state their case to the house. They thought and so did he, that by the adoption of this measure, all the principles of our ancestors were abandoned. In the course of his speech, he went over a large field of argument against the bill, and fairly deduced a train of strong objections. For the purpose of pointing out its partiality, he put a very plain but forcible case. He supposed two gentlemen of equal fortune to set out in life, the one of them with his ten thousand pounds, laying it out upon mortgage, and living upon the interest of his money, which would be 500*l.* per annum; according to the principle of the bill, he would be taxed for that income; and no more: suppose the second applied his ten thousand pounds in commerce, and it produced to him 1000*l.* per annum, he would be taxed at the rate of a thousand a year. "What was the reason," he asked, "of this difference?" They were both equal in point of real property. But as the minister, by this plan, made income the basis of taxation, a double weight was imposed upon diligence, activity, and industry; while those who chose to repose in indolence and supineness upon the produce of capital paid but half. With respect to that part of the bill, which put it out of the power of persons to retrench their expenses, by giving up the use of some articles of luxu-

ry, such as coaches, horses, &c. but compelled them even in that case to pay the same taxes as they did in the preceding year; this principle of injustice, he said, reminded him of the illustration which Sterne gives of the violent extortion of the ancient government of France. "When at Lyons, Yorick resolved to change his mode of travelling, and sail down the Rhone, instead of going post. The post-master, however, applied to him for six livres, six sous, as the price of the next post. "But I do not intend to travel post," said Yorick, "I mean to go by water." "That's no matter," said the post-master, "you must pay for the next post whether you have changed your mind or not." And here said Mr. Fox, the word *spirit* or *principle* was used, as they are always used to sanctify injustice; for says the post-master, "the spirit of the impost is, that the *grand monarque* shall not suffer by your *sickleness*."

He remarked also, that to rouse the energy of the people, it was necessary to hear of the sacrifices of the crown. It was from the highest place that the example ought to be given. It would animate and cheer the heart of the kingdom.

"Solamen miseris socios habuisse laborum."

He concluded a speech of great length, by declaring that he never would have a seat high or low in any administration, until public opinion shall have decided for a thorough and perfect reform of all our abuses, and for a direct return to the genuine principles of the British constitution.

Mr. Pitt rose to answer the arguments of his opponents. He began by acknowledging that in the present shape of the bill, and without any modification whatever, it was

liable to great and important objections. Very large and industrious classes of the people might be affected by it, and consequently it would admit of amendments. But the principle of the bill stood unshaken, and the objections might be easily obviated in a committee. He trusted that by the conduct the house would adopt upon this occasion, they would show that they were the real representatives of the people, and consulted their true interests. His opponents had declared, that no possible modification could make the bill unobjectionable, and had expressed themselves hostile to the whole principle of it; but he had no doubt but the result would prove them to be in error. Mr. Sheridan, he observed, had begun and ended his speech, by saying directly, that he would not vote for granting any supplies towards the farther prosecution of the present war, and that he would not consent to grant the money while his majesty's present ministers continued in power. In pursuing this argument, both Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Fox had branched their speeches into a variety of topics, which at first view did not appear to have any great connexion with the subject then before the house. They had asserted that there was an impossibility of the present administration making peace; but they had neglected to state the means by which other ministers would be enabled to effect the object which every man wished for, viz. the restoration of peace, upon secure and honourable terms. Here Mr. Pitt contended, that if, when the subject of a change in administration of this country was formally discussed, these gentlemen had failed, after a full exertion of all their abilities, to convince a majority of the justice of their ar-

guments; if they had not then clearly proved what they had formerly asserted, that his majesty could not find any nine men, in his journey from Windsor to London, less capable than the present ministers of administering the public affairs, they had not strengthened much their arguments by any thing which had fallen from them that night, or by any event which had occurred from the time they had quitted their duty in parliament to the present hour. With respect to the radical change which the right honourable gentleman (Mr. Fox) had so strenuously insisted upon, he urged that it was not easy to conjecture what it was, for that part of his speech was couched in terms which appeared to be studiously obscure. One thing, however, might easily be collected from what he had said, that a parliamentary reform was only a part of that general change which he was so anxious to obtain; a change from which it appeared no part of the present existing government was exempted. It appeared, however, a little singular, that the right honourable gentleman should consider an unlimited change as the best means of preserving every thing as it stood at present. With respect to a fact, advanced by the right honourable gentleman, that ministers had declared that they would not make peace with a republic in France, he could only say, that no such declaration was ever made by any of his majesty's ministers. Here Mr. Pitt entered at considerable length into the defence of ministers in their conduct relating to the negotiations for peace, which naturally led to the old question of the justice or injustice of the war. He contended, that though the war had

had not been entered into for the purpose of destroying any set of principles in France, yet it did not follow, that having been forced into the war by the unjust aggression of France, we were not to oppose those principles which were so dangerous to every civilised government, and particularly as they had led to that unprovoked aggression against us. The principles of those who were so forward in calling for peace with France had been gradually increasing from the commencement of the war to the present time; they now had reached the point of saying; that the war was perfectly just on the part of France. These gentlemen had now pretty clearly discovered their opinions; they said the ordinary mode for raising the supplies was gone, but they had not stated what was the mode they themselves would suggest. They went, however, to the length of saying, that all extraordinary means of raising them were bad. So that, upon the whole, the mode these gentlemen would recommend, as the best and safest to obtain peace, would be to tell the enemy, "you may ask what terms you please, because we are the aggressors; besides our finances are so exhausted, that we have not the means of resisting any terms you may think proper to impose upon us." He concluded, with hoping the house would read the bill a second time, and let it go into a committee.

Mr. alderman Combe, Mr. Tierney, and Mr. Mainwaring, announced that they had all received instructions from their respective constituents to oppose the bill. The words used in the resolutions entered into by the constituents of Mr. Mainwaring were so strong, that, he said, he was sorry to be

obliged to repeat them to the house. The people declared, "that if the measure was enforced, they would either resist or sink under it."

The house divided—for the second reading 175, against it 50.

The house having resolved itself into a committee on the 18th of December, Mr. Pitt rose and stated the modifications he meant to propose in this bill. But as an outline of it, as it was finally passed, has already been given, it would be superfluous to detail in this place the debates upon those modifications.

The third reading was proposed on the 3d of January, 1798, upon which a long debate took place between the ministerial and opposition sides of the house. Mr. Nicholls said, that he had not as yet heard an answer to any of the objections which had been made to this tax when first proposed, and in the succeeding stages. The first objection made to it, was, that it was unequal, and therefore unjust. If a tax was to be imposed on income, it ought to be on the idea, that income was the evidence of property. Let two men draw each 100*l.* a year, one from the long annuities, the other from the short annuities, their income would be the same; and they would therefore pay the same tax, viz. 10*l.* yet they had manifestly different portions of property; the annuity of one being worth twelve years' purchase, while the annuity of the other was only worth six years' purchase. But equal burdens on unequal portions of property were unjust. The next objection which had been taken was, that by compelling the higher orders of the middle class to economise, it would destroy the employ of the artisan, and diminish the revenue, by rendering the taxes

on consumption less productive. To this some answer had been attempted; the chancellor of the exchequer said, he had relieved the lower orders by diminishing the tax on theirs. As far as the relief granted to the lower orders would occasion less money to be raised, he acknowledged the modification to be beneficial; it was *pro tanto* an abandonment of the bill. But as far as an additional burden was laid upon the higher orders of the middle class, he thought the modification was not beneficial. For the mischief was, that the direct pressure on the higher orders of the middle class would occasion an indirect pressure on the lower orders, for it would destroy their employment. He denied that the chancellor of the exchequer spared the lower orders. He destroyed the life of the poor man, if he took away the employment by which he lived. He regarded Mr. Pitt as being more famous for his talents as a debater in that house, for the purpose of amusing the members, than for his talents as a statesman; this reminded him of an expression of Themistocles the Athenian, who said, "he could not play upon the fiddle, but he could make a little city a great state." The chancellor was the reverse of this, he could play on his fiddle and amuse that house, but he had reduced a great empire to a little state. Even his friends acknowledged that he was no great war-minister; facts had compelled them to make this acknowledgment. Beginning the war with all the powers of Europe on his side, he had so conducted it, that every ally had either abandoned him, or been subdued, while France had been exalted to a power almost beyond the dreams of ambition.

Sir Francis Burdet stated in strong terms many objections to the bill; but these objections, and also those of other gentlemen on the same side, were so similar to the objections made on the second reading, that to repeat them is superfluous. He accused the minister of having passed decrees that would not have disgraced the most tyrannical code, destructive of that freedom of opinion, once the pride and security of Britons; and asserted that those laws so highly prized by our ancestors, for the protection of general freedom, had been by him suspended or repealed. He had placed, he said, error in the throne of reason; and under pretence of maintaining the constitution, he had squandered the wealth, shed the blood, and annihilated the liberties of the people of England. These were the achievements of the right honourable gentleman, and this was the minister and the system the house was then called upon to drain the blood of the country in order to support. He called upon those country gentlemen who might have been frightened into a support of the present system, to stand forward at length in support of their country. Mr. Jekyll also opposed the bill; and on the next day the debate was resumed and carried to a great extent. The principal speakers were, Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Fox; on the opposition side of the house, and Mr. secretary Dundas, Mr. Pitt, and Dr. Lawrence, on the ministerial side. The arguments made use of upon this occasion related principally to the old question of the justice or injustice of the war, and to an elaborate defence of the conduct of administration on one side, and an ardent and open reprobation of their measures on the other. Mr. secretary Dundas, in the

the course of his speech in vindication of the bill and the measures of administration, alluded to an interesting letter which had recently appeared in the public prints, from the earl of Moira to colonel M'Mahon, respecting a plan for forming a new administration. The right honourable secretary said on this occasion, that at the very moment when the adherents of Mr. Fox held him out as the only person capable of retrieving the affairs of the nation, the great body of members alluded to, who had attempted to effect a change of ministry, had actually excluded him from any share in it.

At the close of the debate, the question was put, on a motion of Mr. Sheridan's, for postponing the bill,

Ayes	-	-	-	-	75
Noes	-	-	-	-	202

Majority - 127

On the question that the bill be now read a third time, there appeared,

Ayes	-	-	-	-	196
Noes	-	-	-	-	71

Majority - 125

Lord Grenville, in the house of lords, on the 5th of January, moved the order of the day for the second reading of the assessed tax bill, and for summoning the house thereon; which being read, he rose and stated, "that by the address of their lordships to his majesty on the 15th of November, they had signified their determination to defend with their lives and properties the government and constitution of the country, and the honour and independence of the British empire, and that they were prepared to make the great exertions necessary for that purpose." After this address had been read to the house, lord Car-

lington declared that the situation of the country required great sacrifices to be made for its salvation; but contended, that if instead of raising the money in this indirect manner, every individual had been called upon to contribute, in direct proportion, to his income, but the higher classes in a larger proportion than the lower, it would have been attended with fewer inconveniences than the present plan. He conceived, that one twentieth of real income would produce a larger contribution than one-tenth in the manner proposed by the bill.

Lord Holland rose and made his first speech upon this occasion; he said, the address of both houses of parliament, cited by the noble secretary of state, as having been voted unanimously, appeared to him to be a mere statement of the exigencies of the times, under the circumstances of the country, but did not warrant any such measure as that which was now before them.

He contended, that under the present administration, for the last five years, the condition of this country had grown worse and worse; that when parliament was called upon to vote for a measure which had for its object the raising so large a sum of money as was then proposed, it became necessary to inquire, whether those men to whom millions upon millions of the money of the people had been entrusted, and who had in return for it, heaped upon them distress upon distress, were about to change their system, as the old one had produced such disastrous consequences? When therefore we heard of our present situation being such as required such great exertions, he wished the argument to have a retrospective effect, that the causes of our present calamity might be seen,

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otherwise we should have no chance of avoiding future ruin. But how could it be expected, he asked, that the people would approve of the measure then before their lordships, when it was known that in no one instance had that ministry answered the expectation of the public. He thought that this country ought not to grant any more money without a pledge, not only that ministers should be changed, but that measures should also be changed. He concluded with pointing out several objections to the bill, most of which had been noticed in the debates of the commons upon the same subject.

The duke of Bedford also opposed the bill: he said, there was a great variation in the description of the measure then before their lordships; one noble lord had said it was a tax upon expenditure; another said it was a contribution on property. The first question which occurred to him was, whether it was expedient to raise a part of the supplies within the year? At the commencement of the war, this mode might have been expedient, because it would have inclined the people to reflect whether the objects for which they embarked in the war were worthy of such exertions and expenses. But it was not expedient at a time when the public funds were so reduced, when by the laws which prohibited individuals to lend to individuals beyond a certain rate of interest, government had a monopoly of money, and others had no means of procuring it. His grace contended that the measure would occasion a great reduction of expenditure, and consequently a great defalcation of the public revenue. Suppose a person then contributed to the assessed taxes a sixteenth part of his

income, the quintuple assessment would become a tenth part of the whole. It was not only milliners and coachmakers, but, perhaps, one hundred thousand persons in the metropolis supported by manufactories that would suffer. The old taxes were about seventeen millions: if then a tenth part of the income of the country was required by this bill, the reduction of a tenth part of this income would on those seventeen millions create a defalcation of 1,740,000*l*.

The bill was defended by the ministerial side, upon the same ground of argument as it had been in the commons.

The house divided—contents 50, proxies 23, total 73 — non-contents 6.

Mr. Nicholls, in pursuance of notice he had given, moved in the house of commons, on the 8th of December, a resolution for applying certain parts of the emoluments of certain offices for the public service during the war. This was a measure that was adopted in the reign of William and Mary. He pointed out two kinds of places; one that was dependent on the pleasure of the crown, and the other which was independent of it. As to offices which were dependent on the crown, they might be said to be fairly enjoyed, because they were supposed to be dependent on the talents of the persons who enjoyed them; but in time of public emergency, he contended, they might as fairly be diminished as the income of any other person was diminished by taxes. As to the offices in which the grantee had a freehold interest, it was observable, that in the time of William and Mary, there was no difference between them and those that were held at the pleasure of the crown:

but he thought there ought to be a distinction: and in the resolution, which he should submit to the committee, that distinction would be regarded, for it would only refer to those offices which were held at the pleasure of the crown. Another difference which he intended to make was in the sum on which the resolution should attach: instead of 500*l.* he should propose 2000*l.* With these variations, his proposed resolution would be the same, in every other respect, as that which passed the house of commons in the time of William and Mary, *neminé contradicente*; and the reason which was then given for it was, that owing to the great expenses of the war, it was necessary to the public service. If he succeeded in this step he should proceed to other regulations respecting pensions and the civil list. He concluded with a motion to the following purport: "That it is the opinion of this committee, that the salaries and fees of all offices under the crown shall be applied to the use of the war, except such as amount to less than 2000*l.* per annum, which sum is to be allowed to all officers whose salaries and fees at present exceed 2,000*l.* per annum; and also except that of the lord chancellor, the speaker of the house of commons, the judges, foreign ministers, and commissioned officers of the fleets and armies, or any persons who have a freehold interest in their respective offices."

Upon the resolution of the third of William and Mary being read, the chancellor of the exchequer contended that a more extraordinary misapplication of a precedent never occurred. If such a resolution had actually been agreed to, and ratified by the house in the time of king William, to agree to one on that day so directly opposite to it as that proposed would indeed be a very

extraordinary way of showing respect for, and adherence to, precedents. Besides, though the resolution was agreed to, it so happened that what was so hastily agreed to without a dissentient voice, when it came to be deliberately investigated, on the bringing up a clause of a bill to carry it into effect, was rejected without a division, as impolitic and absurd. He therefore hoped that the house, out of excessive fondness for precedent, would not adopt a measure which was never adopted before.

With respect to the resolutions not extending to salaries under 2000*l.* a year, he asked, whether it could be said that there were no qualifying circumstances which kept pace with the various gradations of salary, and rendered the higher proportionate to those below? Was there no difference in the importance of trust, in the labour, in the talents, in the qualifications, in the responsibility, and in the class of life in which they stood? Would the honourable gentleman say, in the fulness of his equitable œconomy, that the same gradations ought not to be observed in taxing office as in taxing property? The honourable gentleman had inveighed, in an elevated tone, against the disproportion of the assessed taxes to the property of the classes taxed, and yet held out a plan of indiscriminate taxation, sweeping down all to a level—exactng from an office of 2500*l.* a year, one fifth; from an office of four thousand, one half; and from one of six thousand, two thirds.

Mr. secretary at war observed, that though the extravagance and absurdity of the motion had been successfully exposed by Mr. Pitt, he thought it necessary to remark, that as the honourable mover had declared that his object was not to raise revenue, but for other purposes,

poses, those purposes must be to subject ministers to a fine while the war continued! This he thought a whimsical idea, especially when it was considered that the sentiments of the house and of the country had already been expressed upon the subject; and when it was manifest that peace at present could not be obtained.

Mr. Tierney reprobated the invectives which had been thrown out by the ministerial side of the house against his honourable friend the proposer of the resolution. He contended that the resolution which, with a mere error of transcription, formed the model of the present motion, had been passed in times fully as good as the present, and by a parliament fully as much enlightened: he could not see, therefore, what reason there was for the sneer which the right honourable gentleman had indulged. After some explanation from Mr. chancellor Pitt, and Mr. Nicholls had explained, the latter withdrew his motion.

The next measure relative to finance, discussed by the commons, was a motion of Mr. D. P. Coke, for limiting the fees of the tellers of the exchequer during the present distressed and calamitous situation of the country. The house was then sitting in a committee on some clauses in the triple assessment bill. At the time he made this motion (December 22d) he assured the committee that he was prompted by no personal hostility against any of his majesty's ministers; on the contrary, he wished them to retain their places, because he felt extremely averse to the doctrines of the gentlemen who were likely to succeed them, especially to the doctrine of parliamentary reform, which, if attempted, and effected, must, in his

opinion, be productive of much mischief, and must necessarily end in a revolution. But he thought at the same time, that the country must feel surprised, nay, indignant, if the house were to oppose bringing up a clause tending to limit the enormous fees which the measure then under discussion would throw into the hands of the noble lords who held this and other lucrative offices, and that at a moment when the people was groaning under an almost unsupportable weight of taxes.

The chancellor of the exchequer contended, that though the motion might be free from a spirit of hostility to the noble lords in question, it was very far from being free from very great injustice; for it went to deprive those noble lords of what they possessed as the just rewards of the great public services which their fathers had rendered to the country, and which they held as a freehold tenure confirmed to them by an act of parliament; nor was there any thing in the present act to warrant their being thus deprived of two thirds of their income, as it would not make the addition of one shilling to the fees of the tellers of the exchequer.

Sir William Pulteney thought the motion of Mr. Coke had a close connexion with the assessed tax bill, and expressed his surprise that gentlemen appeared averse to a clause which proposed the application of such enormous fees to the exigencies of the country instead of putting them in their pockets when the people laboured under such general distress. After some animadversions from Mr. secretary Dundas, the house divided on the motion of Mr. Coke—Ayes 6, noes 75.

CHAP. III.

Land Tax Redemption Bill. Debates upon that Subject—In the House of Commons—in the Lords. Second Budget, and a Recapitulation of the whole Ways and Means for the Year 1798. Repeal of the Clock and Watch Tax. Bill for consolidating the several Duties upon Houses and Windows. Bill for imposing new Duties upon Imports and Exports. Resolutions for that Purpose agreed to.

THE favourite measure of finance, of all which were proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer in the course of the session of 1798, was a bill for the redemption, or more properly for the perpetuation and sale; of the land tax. For this purpose he rose on the 2d of April, in pursuance of notice he had given to the house, and stated the outline of his plan, the object of which was to absorb a large quantity of stock, and in the process to transfer a portion of the national debt into a landed security: the quantity of stock thus to be transferred was to equal, at least in its amount, the quantity of land tax which should by these means be extinguished, and should be applicable to the public service. He pointed out to the committee, that this operation would produce a much larger sum than that which was at present produced by the land tax; and that considerable gain, in a pecuniary point of view, would necessarily result to the public.—But this was only a collateral advantage attending the measure, and one upon which he laid the smallest stress. The great and important benefit which he expected to arise to the public, from the adoption of this plan, would be the diminution of the stock, which at that moment pressed so hard upon the public

credit. He said that the amount of the land tax was about two millions a year, which had for near a century been annually granted, and according to the same rate for different counties. He proposed by this measure, to reduce so much of the public debt as should leave an income of two millions four hundred thousand pounds applicable to the public service.

The pecuniary advantages arising from this measure were obvious from this statement, because the public would dispose of a revenue of 2,000,000*l.* for which they would clear of public debt to such an amount, that the interest would produce a sum of 2,400,000*l.* leaving a clear gain of 400,000*l.* Under these circumstances, the situation of the person who purchased the land tax would be that of having a landed security for his property, and that at a rate so favourable as to render it a very desirable object; the public would be a considerable gainer, and eighty millions of capital would be taken out of the market. He should not only propose to place a sum of 2,000,000*l.* under the annual controul of parliament; but he should propose, that the sum of 2,400,000*l.* should be placed in that situation; so that in fact, instead of losing any of the constitutional checks which parliament

parliament possessed before, it would have a greater check over the public revenue than it had at that moment. It had been objected to this plan, he said, that the land tax, which it was the object of this measure to perpetuate, was in many instances to unequal as to amount absolutely to an abuse; and to perpetuate an abuse was certainly a great evil. Many gentlemen had stated to him, that if the land tax was at present equal in its operation, they would consent to this measure; but they could not give their consent to make abuses more permanent than they were. To these objections he answered, that if gentlemen had seen the tax voted from year to year, for near a century, without any attempt being made to correct this inequality, he thought it was not unfair to conclude, that as long as the land tax continued, it was as likely to continue under its present arrangement by annual votes, as it would be if rendered perpetual. This observation he wished to put strongly to the good sense of the house. As estates had descended from hand to hand for near a century, with the inequalities originally instituted in the land tax, it would be exceedingly difficult to impose new valuations upon property. It had been said, that this regulation would lead to a new land tax: suppose a new land tax should be imposed; it was clear that it could not be imposed upon any estate which had been discharged of the old, in any other proportion than it would be upon any other estate upon which the old land tax still remained, except that the amount of the land tax, at the time it was redeemed, should be deducted from the estate, otherwise the operation of it would be unfair. He contended, that by this plan, all persons who redeemed

their land tax would be fully as safe from any additional burden as those who had not redeemed it. With respect to the operation which this measure would have upon landed gentlemen, supposing that other persons purchased the land tax which attached upon their estates, he remarked, that this objection was founded upon an idea, that every gentleman possessing a landed estate might not be able to purchase his land tax. In the plan which he had to propose, every advantage would be given to the owner of the estate, not only to induce him to purchase the land tax, but to facilitate his effecting that object. But if within a certain time (which the committee would hereafter limit) the owner of the land should not be able to purchase, provision would be made, that even in that case, the purchase, or that of their heirs, should not be left entirely hopeless; but that a farther period should be allowed them, to take advantage of the purchase. With respect to the terms of the purchase, it was proposed, that the payment should be regulated by the price of stock; and that the payment should never be made in money, but always in a transfer of stock. This was unquestionably as good a mode of payment as if it was paid in money, and would have the effect of saving the interest, and would accommodate itself to every fluctuation of the stocks. Suppose the stocks were taken at 50, which was about the price at which they now were, the interest which a person might make of money in the funds was 6 per cent.; and consequently the number of years purchase was between sixteen and seventeen years. He meant that the land tax should be taken at twenty years purchase. From this statement it would appear, that there

there would be a transfer of forty pounds of stock for every one pound of land tax redeemed. Upon this principle, if the stocks were at 75, then it would be at thirty years purchase, and so on, always making a difference of one year's purchase for every $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. variation in the stocks; and the result of the whole of this measure would be that the public would gain one fifth, or 400,000*l.* As for landed gentlemen, supposing them capable of purchasing their tax, he thought that giving them an opportunity of doing it at twenty years purchase was a sufficient temptation to induce them to make the purchase; and, on the other hand, it was a considerable advantage to the public to sell the land tax at twenty years purchase, while others were redeeming the stock at the rate of between sixteen and seventeen years purchase. He admitted, that there was a difference between funded and landed security, in point of value; landed property was hardly ever sold for less than from twenty-eight to thirty years purchase; whereas funded property was at about sixteen or seventeen years. It was therefore obvious that great advantages were given to the purchaser when he was given that which was equivalent to landed property at twenty years purchase; the share, therefore, asked for the public, was little, while the advantage it afforded to the individual was great, if it was to be called landed security; but he did not mean to say it was in every respect the same, because it was an unimprovable estate. It was his intention to give every possible advantage to the holders of land, and of course to exclude strangers from purchasing the tax. For this purpose it was proposed to give a power to every

man who had even a temporary right to the estate, to secure on the estate the money which he might borrow for that purpose, thus to put the tenant in tail and the tenant for life in the same situation with the tenant in fee; and it was also proposed to give a power of selling part of a settled estate to free the rest from the burden of the tax. If the owner was not able to redeem the tax, then it was proposed that he should not be permitted to redeem it till that period when the monied men would have the least objection to return to the possession of stock: the period he would fix would be, when the old sinking fund should be at what was called the maximum, that is, when the interest was no longer to go on in a compound ratio; this would be when the old sinking fund would amount to 4,200,000*l.* annually. If then the country should be able to get through the difficulties of the present moment, they had a right to look forward with confidence; they would soon arrive at a period at which they would have a sinking fund of between seven and eight millions, applicable annually to the reduction of the national debt. When that happened there must be an end of all difficulties respecting the public credit; there would then be an end of all difference between landed and funded property. He next spoke to the fluctuation to which the land tax on particular estates was liable. By the mode of division pointed out in the land tax act, the charge on particular districts continued unaltered; but this was not the case within the districts; there alterations would be found to take place. He believed, however, that in most part of the kingdom the operation of the

the repartition of the charge on individual estates was very little. The places most liable to variation were towns, and parts where new buildings were establishing. In the metropolis it was very considerable. In Mary-la-bonne the tax was every day lighter. Where a change was likely to take place, it was thought most advisable to suffer the proprietor to redeem it at its present rate, and he might then waive the advantage in the event of an increase in the tax, and submit to the loss which he would sustain by an abatement; or he might, if the commissioners thought proper, go on receiving the difference between the present and future rates of the receiver-general, in case of an increase, and settling with the parish in the other alternative. It might happen that a purchaser might contract not only for the land tax of individual estates, but also for that of a district, in which case no fluctuation would arise.

Such were the outlines of a plan, the details of which were necessarily long. Mr. Pitt concluded with proposing fifteen resolutions, which, as they formed the *stratum* of the bill, are inserted here.

I. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the several and respective sums of money charged by virtue of an act of the present session of parliament, intituled, "An act for granting an aid to his majesty by a land tax, for the service of the year 1798," on the respective counties and places in Great Britain, in respect of the premises in the said act mentioned, lying within the same counties and places respectively, to be raised, levied, and paid unto his majesty, within the space of one year, from the 25th day of March, 1798, shall, from

and after the expiration of the said term, continue, and be raised, levied, and paid yearly, to his majesty, his heirs, and successors, from and after the 25th day of March, in every year, for ever; subject, nevertheless, to the rules, regulations, restrictions, and conditions of redemption, to be prescribed.

II. That it is the opinion of this committee, that it shall be lawful for commissioners to be appointed for that purpose, to contract and agree with all and every persons or person, bodies politic or corporate, having or holding any manors, messuages, or tenements, for the redemption of the land tax charged upon their respective manors, messuages, or tenements, according to the assessment and pound rate to be made in pursuance of the said act; and that the consideration to be given for such redemption shall be so much capital stock of public annuities, transferable at the bank of England, bearing an interest after the rate of three pounds per centum per annum, commonly called the three pounds per centum consolidated annuities, and the three pounds per centum reduced annuities, as will yield an annuity or dividend, exceeding the amount of the land tax so to be redeemed by one-fifth part thereof; such capital stock to be transferred to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt within the period of five years, from the day of by four instalments in every year; videlicet, on the first day of May, the first day of August, the first day of November, and the first day of February, in each year: the first instalment to be made on such of the said days as shall next ensue after the entering into such contract; but with liberty to any person to stipulate with the

the said commissioners for the transfer of the whole of the said capital stock at one time, or within a less period than five years, so that the same be made by even instalments, at equal intervals within the period agreed upon, and by not less than four instalments in each year of the said period.

III. That it is the opinion of this committee, that all bodies politic, corporate, or collegiate, corporations aggregate or sole, and all guilds, mysteries, fraternities, or brotherhoods, and all trustees or feoffees in trust for charities or other public purposes, having any estate or interest in any such manors, messuages, or tenements, whatever may be their estate or interest therein, other than tenants at rack rent, and all committees of lunatics or idiots, and guardians of infants, and all executors and administrators, and all other trustees whatsoever, may contract with the said commissioners to be appointed for the said purposes; and that persons in the actual possession, or beneficially entitled to the rents and profits of any manors, messuages, or tenements (other than tenants at rack rent), shall be preferred in the purchase of such land tax to persons in remainder, reversion, or expectancy, provided they offer to contract for the redemption of such land tax on or before a day to be specified; but that the persons in remainder, reversion, or expectancy, shall be entitled to redeem such land tax in preference to any other persons having no estate or interest therein, according to the priority of such their respective estates or interests, and in the order in which they will be respectively entitled to succeed to the said manors, messuages, or tenements; and that in case of demise at rack rent,

the persons beneficially entitled to the rent reserved shall (notwithstanding any covenant) be considered as being in the actual possession of such manors, messuages, or tenements, for the purpose of claiming such benefit of preference, with power to add the amount of the land tax so purchased to the rent reserved, and to use the same powers for the recovery thereof as for the recovery of rent in arrear; and that on the completion of any contract for the redemption of the land tax, by the person having such title to preference, or by any other on his behalf, and payment of the first instalment thereof, the manors, messuages, or tenements, comprised in such contract, shall thenceforth be wholly freed and exonerated from the land tax charged thereon, and from all farther assessments thereof, unless the person contracting for such land tax shall, at the time of entering into the contract for the same, declare his option to be considered as on the same footing with a third person purchasing the land tax; and that upon every contract to be entered into as aforesaid, upon which the transfer of stock shall be made by instalments, there shall be paid at the time of making the second instalment upon such contract, and so of every subsequent instalment upon such contract, into the hands of the cashier or cashiers of the governor and company of the bank of England (whose receipt shall be a sufficient discharge) to the use of his majesty, his heirs, or successors, a sum of money, by way of interest, to be computed from the period of the first instalment, equal to four-fifth parts of the amount of what would have been the produce up to the time of making such payment of the whole of the stock to
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be transferred upon such contract, after deducting therefrom the amount of the produce of such part of the stock as shall then have been transferred; and in every such case the persons beneficially entitled to any estate in remainder, reversion, or expectancy, in the manors, messuages, or tenements, whereof such land tax shall have been so contracted for, shall, at any time or times after such estate shall vest in possession, by reason of the determination of the next preceding estate or interest, be entitled, upon an assignment of such contract, upon transferring to such original contractors the like amount of the three per centum bank annuities as was transferred by such original contractors as the consideration for the redemption of the land tax, or upon paying to such original contractors (at their option) such a sum as shall be of equal value therewith at the time of such conveyance, and in the same option to be considered on the footing of a third person, with respect to such land tax as the person or persons first redeeming the same might have.

IV. That it is the opinion of this committee, that all bodies politic or corporate, and other persons being in the actual possession, or entitled beneficially to the rents and profits of any manors, messuages, or tenements, may sell any part or parts thereof, for the purpose of redeeming or purchasing such land tax, or charge the said manors, messuages, or tenements, with such sum or sums of money as shall be sufficient to redeem or purchase the land tax charged thereon; and for securing the repayment of such sum or sums of money, with interest, may convey, surrender, or demise the same by

way of mortgage; or may grant, limit, or appoint, any yearly sum or sums of money, by way of a perpetual rent charge, not exceeding the amount of the land tax charged upon the said manors, messuages, or tenements, to be issuing out of and charged upon such manors, messuages, or tenements: and every such sale, conveyance, mortgage, or grant of any rent charge, shall, after the same shall be duly enrolled, be good, valid, and effectual in the law, to all intents, notwithstanding any defect of title in any of the parties thereto; and the respective persons to whom any such sale or mortgage shall be made, or any such rent charge shall be granted, shall respectively hold the manors, messuages, or tenements, or the said rent charges, freed and absolutely discharged from all former titles, charges, and incumbrances whatsoever; and that where-ever there shall be any surplus, after paying so much as shall be sufficient for the purchase of three per centum annuities, to be transferred as the consideration for such land tax, the said surplus shall be paid into or placed in the bank of England, in the name and with the privity of the accountant-general of the court of chancery, to the intent that such surplus money may be invested, as soon as conveniently may be, under the direction, and with the approbation of the said court, in the purchase of other estates to be conveyed to the like uses, and in the same manner as the same stood settled; and in the mean time such surplus to be invested in government or other public securities, in the name of the said accountant-general; and the dividends and annual produce thereof shall, from time to time, belong to the person who

who would, for the time being, have been entitled to the rents and profits of the manors, messuages, or tenements purchased.

V. That it is the opinion of this committee, that if, within a time to be named, no contract shall be entered into with the commissioners to be appointed for the redemption or purchase of the land tax, or any part or parcel thereof, charged in any parish or place by any person entitled to the benefit of preference, or by any person substituted in that behalf, the said commissioners may then put up to sale, either by public auction or otherwise, as the commissioners for the treasury for the time being shall direct, the whole or any part or parcel of the said land tax charged in any county, or division of any county, or in any parish or place, or any specific share or shares thereof, or any land tax charged on any particular estate or estates, or any part or parcel thereof, which shall not be redeemed or purchased within the said period, and to contract and agree with any persons for the sale of the same, subject to a proviso for the redemption of such land tax, at the time and in the manner to be provided; and the manors, messuages, or tenements whereon the land tax purchased is charged shall be subject to a new assessment from year to year by an equal pound rate, according to the value thereof, in common with all other estates in the same parish which shall remain chargeable to the land tax; and the consideration shall be the transfer of stock in the three per cent. annuities, transferable at the bank of England as aforesaid, of the like amount as is hereinbefore directed, unto the commissioners appointed for the reduction of the national debt, to be made within the period

of one year from the time of entering into such contract, by four instalments of not less than one-fourth part of the whole amount of the stock to be so transferred as aforesaid, at intervals of three months from each other; the transfer of such stock for the first instalment to be made at the end of three months from the time of entering into such contract, but with liberty to contract and agree with the said commissioners to be appointed, to transfer the whole of the stock agreed to be transferred as the consideration for such redemption or purchase at the time prescribed for the transfer of the first instalment thereof, or to transfer such stock in any greater proportions, and in any less number of instalments than are before prescribed, so as that such instalments shall not be made at a greater interval than three months from each other; and that such rate of interest shall be payable as in the case of land tax redeemed by persons having a title to preference, and such persons shall be entitled to demand and receive, for their own use, the full amount of the land tax purchased by them, free of all charges and deductions whatever, at the respective times, and in the respective proportions at which the same shall be payable, but which shall be redeemable by the person or persons respectively entitled to the benefit of preference in respect to their tenure in the said manors, messuages, or tenements, at the period to be limited for the redemption of the same.

VI. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the receiver-general of each county, riding, or place, where any such land tax shall remain chargeable as aforesaid, after the same shall have been purchased,

purchased, not as a specific charge on any manors, messuages, or tenements, in such parish or place, or his deputy or deputies, shall, before such land tax shall have become due and payable, on the twentieth day of September, for the half year ending the twenty-ninth day of September, and on the sixteenth day of March for the half year ending on the twenty-fifth day of March in every year, upon demand, pay, or cause to be paid, to the purchaser or purchasers thereof, or the heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, of such purchaser or purchasers respectively, the full amount of the land tax so purchased, free of all charges and deductions whatever, without fee or reward, out of any public monies in his hands, in the manner to be provided: and that where any purchase shall be made of any land tax as a specific charge on any manors, messuages, or tenements, or where any person, &c. entitled to preference shall have made his option, to be considered on the footing of a third person purchasing the land tax, and any abatement shall afterwards take place in the sum so charged, the receiver-general shall, upon the production of the certificate of such abatement, pay the full amount thereof, free of all charges and deductions whatever, and without fee or reward, to such person or persons as aforesaid, in like manner, and out of such monies, and at such times of payment, as is directed, for the payment of the whole of the land tax purchased: and that in default of such payment by the receiver-general or his deputy, the purchaser, or the heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns of such purchaser, may cause notice of such default to be given to the occu-

pier of the manors, messuages, or tenements on which the land tax so purchased shall be charged; and such occupier shall be obliged to pay the same upon demand, unless he shall have previously paid the same for want of such notice to the collector of the parish; or unless the yearly value of the estate, whereon such land tax shall have been charged (estimating such value by the rack rents and the highest improvements made thereof) shall be reduced so that the estates shall be charged with a higher rate than four shillings in the pound on such value; in which case the occupier shall not be liable to the payment of any greater sum than after the rate of four shillings in the pound on such value; or unless the land tax shall, by any abatement thereof, be reduced to a sum less than the sum charged on the same manors, messuages, or tenements, at the time of the purchase; in which case, such occupier shall not be liable to the payment of any greater sum than the sum actually charged on such manors, messuages, or tenements, at the time of the demand, with the like remedies for the recovery as landlords may by law have for the recovery of rent in arrear: and that in case of any diminution of the sum to be paid to the purchaser of any land tax, by reason of any reduction in the value of the estate charged therewith, the purchaser shall have the option of continuing to receive a sum necessary to complete, in each year, the whole annual amount of the sum originally purchased by him, or to demand of and from the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt a transfer of so much capital stock in the three per centum bank annuities as shall yield an interest exceeding the amount
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of such abatement by one-fifth part thereof.

VII. That it is the opinion of this committee, that if the receiver-general of any county where any land tax shall be purchased, not as a specific charge upon any particular manors, messuages, or tenelements, in any parish or place, but a charge upon such parish or place at large, or upon such part thereof as shall continue chargeable, shall neglect to pay to the purchaser of any land tax the full amount of the land tax so purchased, the purchaser may cause notice of such default to be given to the collector of the said land tax, and of his intention to receive the land tax in future from such collector; and on such notice, every such purchaser shall be entitled to receive the amount of such land tax from such collector accordingly; or if such receiver-general where any land tax shall be purchased as a specific charge on any particular estate or estates, or where any land tax shall be redeemed by the person entitled to preference, who shall have made his option to be considered on the footing of a third person purchasing the land tax, and any abatement shall afterwards take place in the sum so charged, shall neglect to pay to the persons entitled to such land tax the full amount of such abatement, such purchaser may cause the like notice to be given to the collector to entitle such purchaser to the land tax so purchased from such collector in the manner before directed; and that every such collector, on the production of the contract of purchase, shall, from time to time, pay, or cause to be paid, to such purchaser, the full amount of the land tax purchased, free of all charges and deductions whatever, and without fee or

reward, out of any monies in the hands of such collector, arising from the produce of the land tax in such parish or place, unless such collector shall, for want of such notice as aforesaid, have paid the whole of the land tax charged in such parish or place to the receiver-general of the county.

VIII. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the land tax purchased shall not be subject to redemption until the period when the dividends arising from the purchases of stock made by the commissioners for the reduction of such part of the national debt which existed previous to the commencement of the present war, shall, according to the true intent and meaning of the acts now in force, cease to accumulate, and be considered as redeemed, and in the disposition of parliament; and that after that period, and at any time during three years then next ensuing, every person being in the possession of or beneficially entitled to any manors, messuages, or tenelements, charged with any land tax which shall have been purchased, shall, in the order in which they respectively shall be entitled to the benefit of redeeming their land tax, according to the rate of preference for such redemption, be entitled to treat with the commissioners to be appointed for the redemption of such land tax, or any part or parcel thereof, in such and the like manner in all respects as he might have done within the period to be first limited; provided that notice in writing be given to the receiver-general, specifying the amount of the land tax so redeemed, who shall cause notice thereof to be given to the original purchaser, his executors, administrators, or assigns; and all payments to such

original purchaser on account of such land tax shall cease and determine from the end of the quarter of the year next ensuing such purchase; and that the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, on application made to them by the original purchaser, his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, and on production to the said commissioners of the original contract or purchase, and of the notice given to such purchaser, his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, by the receiver-general, of the redemption of such land tax, shall either transfer to him so much capital stock in the three per cent. annuities as shall have been transferred by such original purchaser, his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, as the consideration for the purchase of such land tax, or at his option so much money as the capital stock so transferred was worth at the time of the first purchase, and such contract shall thereupon be determined, and of no effect; and that whenever any land tax purchased shall be afterwards redeemed, the manors, messuages, or tenements, comprised in such contract shall be wholly freed and exonerated from the land tax charged thereon, and from all farther assessments thereof.

IX. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the non-performance of any contract shall subject the party contracting to a pecuniary penalty, not exceeding part of the purchase money. And that the court of exchequer, on the application of the person who shall have incurred such penalty, or any other person who may be prejudiced thereby, by petition, to be preferred in a summary way, may enlarge the time for

the making good any subsequent instalment or instalments, and grant such relief to the party or parties as to the said court shall seem meet.

X. That it is the opinion of this committee, that if any assessment of land tax which shall continue to be charged shall at any time be found to exceed the rate of four shillings in the pound on the annual value of the manors, messuages, or tenements, the same shall be subject to an abatement in the manner in such cases directed by the act of the present session of parliament.

XI. That it is the opinion of this committee, that where any manors, messuages, or tenements, which now are rated together, and chargeable with the payment of one gross sum by way of land tax, shall be separated or divided, and come into the possession of different persons prior to the time when such manors, messuages, or tenements, shall be exonerated therefrom; then the commissioners of land tax acting in or for the division wherein such land tax shall be charged, shall cause such land tax to be apportioned as between such persons respectively, according to the value of their respective estates, and to assess and charge the proportions in which their respective estates shall bear and sustain the same; and in case any one of such persons shall, after such appointment, be compelled to pay the whole of the said land tax, or more than his due proportion thereof, such person shall be reimbursed by the person who under such assessment ought to have paid the same, such sum or sums of money as he or she shall have been compelled to pay over and above his due proportion of such land tax, with the like remedy

remedy for the recovery thereof as landlords have for the recovery of rent in arrear.

XII. That it is the opinion of this committee, that whenever in any parish or place the whole of the land tax charged upon the manors, messuages, or tenements, in such parish or place shall have been redeemed, and all the manors, messuages, or tenements, in such parish or place shall be exonerated from the payment of any sum or sums of money as land tax, all assessments in such parish or place shall cease and determine.

XIII. That it is the opinion of this committee, that when any capital stock of the three pound per centum bank annuities shall be transferred to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, the interest or dividend which would have been payable on such stock, shall, from thenceforth, cease to be issued from the receipt of the exchequer, or to be charged on the consolidated fund; and the money which would have been applicable to the payment thereof shall remain and be a part of the growing produce of the consolidated fund to be applied in such manner as parliament shall, from time to time, direct.

XIV. That it is the opinion of this committee, that in all cases where the land tax on any manors, messuages, or tenements, shall have been redeemed by persons entitled to preference, such manors, messuages, or tenements, shall from thenceforth for ever be free and discharged from any tax, other than such as shall be imposed thereon, in proportion to the annual value of the same, in common with all other property of the same description: provided always, that in estimating the value of such pro-

perty the annual amount of the land tax so redeemed shall be deducted therefrom, and that in all other respects the value of such property shall be estimated in like manner, and according to the same regulations as shall be applied to property of a like description, the land tax on which shall not have been so redeemed.

XV. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the several duties imposed on malt, 27 Geo. III. and on sugar by the acts of 27th, 34th, and 37th Geo. III., and on tobacco and snuff, 29th Geo. III. shall continue in force till the fifth day of April, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine, and no longer, but shall from thenceforth cease and determine, except as to arrears due or to grow due, unless the same shall be specially continued by parliament.

The report of these resolutions was brought up on the 16th of April, upon which Mr. Harrison observed, that wrong and exceptionable as he conceived the measure to be in principle, he would have given it his support, were there any hopes of its tending to relieve the nation in its present situation. If the measure were intended to relieve the country, its operation ought to be quick and extensive; but the resolutions just read tended obviously to narrow and retard any benefit that might possibly arise from this crude and inconsistent scheme. If the plan were successful it would only produce a saving of 400,000*l.* per annum, and this not till a period of at least five years. The minister might soon realise a much larger sum by settling his mind at work to reduce the public expenditure, by lopping off every unnecessary extravagance and pernicious waste; but what was

the situation in which the landholder must be placed by this plan? He was to be called upon in twelve months to say, whether he would or would not purchase his land tax? This scheme appeared so unlikely to answer the end which the author of it held out to the house, that he could not help thinking there was some secret purpose in view; it seemed to him, that it was intended to give a new kind of landed security to certain funds. If 80,000,000*l.* of 3 per cents. were taken out of the market and invested upon land, the measure might be followed up still farther, until all that description of stock should obtain this new security, and be thereby rendered more valuable; but no act had been passed to implicate land as collateral security for the funds, and he was therefore very unwilling that such a new measure should at once be extended to no less a sum than fourscore millions of stock. For these reasons he would oppose the motion for the second reading.

Mr. Pitt contended, that part of the plan was a pecuniary gain to the public, and that to a considerable amount; but that was an object of a secondary nature; it would have an influence to raise the price of the funds, which would tend to raise the credit of the country, and by so doing increase its resources. His motive in this measure was not that of raising the three per cents. by taking away the value of land, but it was to raise the value of stock in the funds; which, by the way, was a mortgage upon all the land, and upon all the commerce of this country; and by raising that value, to raise the value of every other species of property in the kingdom, by increasing our resources. There was not land to

be made collateral security to the funds; this was intended as a security to the public, in lieu of a duty upon land. The particulars of the measure would come forward on the detail of the bill; and he could not regularly allude to them in the course of a debate on the resolutions.

Mr. Hobhouse observed, there was one objection which attached to the very principle of the plan; namely, that, according to the resolutions, the land tax now granted annually was to be converted into a perpetuity; this tax from its first introduction in its present shape, more than a century past, had been sometimes at 2*s.*, sometimes at 3*s.*, but never more than 4*s.* in the pound. When it was raised by lord North, in 1775, from 3*s.* to 4*s.*, it received the consent of the country gentlemen expressly upon the ground, that other taxes were scarcely ever lessened, but that the land tax had frequently been reduced. But it was now proposed to make a tax perpetual, which was only assented to at a period of national exigency, in the hope of one day seeing it remitted. He then reverted to the probability there was of a fresh land tax being imposed. The minister himself had not denied that probability; and one of the resolutions provided, "That all lands, &c. which shall have been redeemed, shall for ever be, and discharged from any tax, *other than such as shall be imposed thereon in proportion to the annual value of the same in common with all other property of the same description*; and that in estimating the value of such property, the annual amount of the land tax so redeemed shall be deducted." He contended, that it might be inferred from this resolution, that the sale of the present land tax might

might lead to the imposition of another, according to the *present value* of the landed property of the kingdom. Six-pence in the pound upon the improved rents, would probably subject every landholder to the payment of as large a sum as the present. When the measure was viewed in this light, it could only be regarded as an invasion of the sacred right of private property, and deserved to be reprobated no less than the contribution act; by which a man's fortune was inferred from the quantum of his payment to the assessed taxes, and a portion of it seized for the use of the state. He concluded with hoping, that the house would not allow the resolutions to be read a second time.

The hon. Mr. D. Ryder and lord Hawkesbury entered into a vindication of the chancellor of the exchequer; and contended for the utility of a measure to which they had paid such serious attention, and proposed with so many cogent arguments in its favour.

The resolutions were then read a second time, and bills ordered to be brought in pursuant to the same.

When the chancellor of the exchequer, on the 23d of April, moved the order of the day for the second reading of the bill, Mr. Jolliffe wished the second reading to be delayed, and moved an amendment to that effect. Mr. Pitt was against the delay, and entered into an argument in support of the measure. It was unnecessary to detain the house, by going over all the various topics which had been urged before; but he begged leave to bring to their recollection, that the principal point at issue between him and those who opposed the bill was, supposing he did succeed in transferring such a quantity of stock into another de-

scription of property, whether it would have a tendency to invigorate public credit, by raising the price of the funds, and reducing the national debt? They would also recollect, that when he first proposed the measure, he stated, that its not being successful in the first instance was no proof against its ultimate advantage; though it was then rather uncandidly urged by his opponents, that it was not likely to prove of any benefit to the public, since the bare mention of the proposition on that day had not raised the price of the funds. He was happy, however, to have it in his power to assure the house, that a considerable advantage to the public had already resulted from the agitation of this measure. It had happened, that, notwithstanding a loan was contemplated and even in actual negotiation, the funds were that day higher than they had been on any day since he first proposed the subject to the house; but upon this circumstance he set the less value, as it was not the ground upon which he originally recommended the measure to the house. That recommendation was founded entirely upon a distant benefit—not upon an immediate one. He had that day been treating for a loan, and he had the satisfaction of assuring the house, that the monied-men entertained the highest opinion of the advantages likely to result from the sale of the land tax. In consequence of the present situation of the country, he had made a bargain (which would be made known to the house in a few days) more advantageous to the public than any he had made in times of the greatest tranquillity.

The honourable Mr. Pierrepont seconded the amendment proposed by Mr. Jolliffe, and gave it as his

opinion, that the measure would not be of advantage to the country.

Lord Sheffield, who had before objected to the principle of the bill, said, that after a more mature consideration, he found it so unjust, so partial, and in every respect so bad, that no mode of carrying it into execution, or even any advantage that might possibly be obtained, could reconcile him to it, because he was convinced that the mode proposed could not attain the object which he understood was to raise the value of certain funds; or, in other words, to ease that property which was not taxed at all, at the expense of another kind of property, viz. land and houses, which were at present overwhelmed with taxes. He should never cease to remonstrate against such conduct towards the landed interest. His lordship said, that an honourable baronet (Sir William Pulteney) had very ably stated the fallacious expectation that was held out by the bill now before the house.

Mr. secretary Dundas supported the bill, and expressed some surprise that gentlemen should be calling for the delay of a bill, the essence of which had been printed, and in their hand above a fortnight ago, for the essence of it was to be found in the printed resolutions. He thought it strange also that they who could argue coolly and deliberately enough upon most topics which came before them, should mix in the discussion of this matter a degree of heat which certainly did not belong to it, for this measure certainly required a temperate discussion. He approved of the bill on account of its utility, as well as fairness and equity. The landlord was under no obligation to redeem his land tax, and had therefore no ground

for complaint. He supported the second reading of the bill without delay. Mr. Hobhouse contended that some allowance ought to be made to country gentlemen when they did use warmth upon the discussion of this bill, when it was considered how great an injury they would suffer by the adoption of the measure. He agreed in the observations made upon the bill by lord Sheffield. If it were proper that an additional poundage should be laid upon the land (which he did not admit), it ought to be imposed without interfering with the present tax. Suppose the landholders, by a rigid economy, to effect the redemption of the existing tax, the old account would soon be forgotten, the new one only would be remembered. The language of the minister would then be, "You gentlemen of landed property pay at present but a very trifle; you certainly can afford to contribute a little more in support of the exigencies of the state." After Mr. Balford and Mr. Tierney had opposed the bill, the house divided,

For Mr. Jolliffe's amendment	38
Against it	153

Majority	115
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A debate took place on the third reading of this bill, on the 30th of May, in which very few additional arguments were urged either for or against it. The discussion principally consisted in a recapitulation of the advantages and disadvantages which had been urged in the former stages of the bill. Lord Sheffield persisted in wishing the entire rejection of the measure. He repeated, that the house did not know the bill; and that those who brought it in did not understand their own plan; this was clear, he said,

said, from the strange botchwork which they had made of it, adding every day many new clauses, and altering others, so that it was by no means the same as was first brought in, and consequently unknown to the country: that the chancellor of the exchequer had proved in a very extraordinary manner that he was unacquainted with the bill, by saying that the clause relative to the future land tax of Scotland had been inserted without his knowledge. Sir Richard Carr Glynn strongly supported the measure, and expressed his astonishment that gentlemen of high respectability, and known attachment to their country, should so decidedly and warmly oppose it. He contended, that the country had already received much advantage from the bill. Previous to the rumour of this measure, the 3 per cent. annuities were at 47 per cent. and many gentlemen conversant in the operation of the funds had given it as their opinion, that if some measure similar to this in effect had not been brought forward, the 3 per cent. annuities must have been sold to the loan-contractor at 45 per cent. The house would recollect, that since the bringing forward this bill, the minister had bargained with the loan-contractors for the same stock, at upwards of 48 per cent. Here was a gain to the public of 3 per cent. on every 100l. stock, making on the whole loan a gain of upwards of one million of stock. After Mr. Sheridan had spoken in opposition to the bill, and lord Hawkebury in its favour, the house divided upon the motion of lord Sheffield, namely, "That instead of the word 'now,' the words 'this day three months,' might be inserted."

Ayes	-	-	33
Noes	-	-	135

The bill was then read a third time.

This being a money-bill was not discussed at great length in the house of lords; but was opposed by several of their lordships upon nearly the same grounds as it had been in the commons. Upon lord Grenville's motion for the second reading on the eighth of June, the bill was strongly opposed by lords Caernarvon, Suffolk, Thurlow, and Holland. The arguments urged by lord Thurlow were particularly energetic. The bill, he contended, was partial; its provisions were more favourably framed for the Scots land-holder than for the English; the latter could not apply to the court of chancery for redress with the same facility that the former could appeal to the court of session. He urged, that a measure which entitled every man to buy, and obliged so many to sell, was no other in effect than a requisition for the disposal of an aliquot part of every man's estate. He considered the idea of taxing the personal property of every individual equally necessary with taxing the landed property. His lordship repeated a simile, which he had read in a work respecting the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, where the country gentlemen were compared to sheep, who quietly suffered themselves to be shorn and re-shorn; and the monied men were compared to hogs, who always made a noise and bustle whenever they were attempted to be touched. For this reason, he supposed, in the present instance, the latter description of persons were left untouched; but if the land-holders or country gentlemen were satisfied with this measure, they would deserve every evil that

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could befall them. After Lord Auckland and Lord Grenville had spoken in support of the bill, their lordships divided upon the second reading,

Contents (including proxies) 27

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The bill was read a third time on the 12th of June, when a protest against it was signed by the dukes of Leeds and Leinster, and lords Caernarvon, Suffolk, and Berkshire.

The next financial business which occurred in the parliamentary proceedings of 1798 was the second budget, introduced into the house of commons in a committee of ways and means, on the 25th of April, by the chancellor of the exchequer. He began by reminding the committee, that when he furnished an estimate of the total expenditure in the preceding November, for the ensuing year, he then stated it at nearly twenty-five millions and a half, to be provided for the exigencies of the public service. It was a great satisfaction to him, and he trusted it would be equally so to the committee, that what he had now to lay before them differed but little from the estimate which he had given in before; and that difference arose from such obvious objects as to make it unnecessary for him to take up much of their time in explanation. The total amount of his second estimate was 28,490,000*l.* differing by the sum of three millions of excess from his first. This excess had unavoidably arisen from the unforeseen and additional preparations on the part of this country, occasioned by the threats, and produced by the formidable exertions of the enemy against us.

He then proceeded to state the

expenditure under each distinct head. The first was the navy, which he had estimated in November at the sum of 12,538,000*l.* to which the committee had since added the sum of 910,000*l.* making a total of 13,448,000*l.* The next article of supply was the army, which the committee would recollect had been estimated at 10,112,000*l.* To this sum there had been since added the charge of 1,315,000*l.* for defraying the expense incurred by the supplementary militia; and 130,000*l.* for the provisional cavalry. There was also a sum of 350,000*l.* for the volunteer corps of infantry, which, he had the happiness to remark, amounted to no less than 40,000 men. The next article related to the foreign corps, and made an expenditure of 226,000*l.* He formerly stated that the extraordinaries incurred in 1797 were likely to amount about to 1,300,000*l.*; and they had only exceeded that sum by 61,000*l.* The original estimate of the charge for barracks was 400,000*l.* to which he now added the further increase of 120,000*l.* These were the whole of the articles which respected the army, with the exception of 700,000*l.* for future extraordinaries. The extraordinaries he had formerly calculated at 2,500,000*l.* but he now took them at 3,500,000*l.* These items, taken together, gave the total sum of 12,857,000*l.* for the army estimate. There had been very few additions to the charge for miscellaneous articles, and the total of the sums appropriated to this branch he stated at 682,000*l.* Upon the whole there appeared an excess of 3,674,000*l.* in this second estimate above that made in November. The bank had been paid the sum of 500,000*l.*

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by the early product of the land tax, which otherwise would have gone to the consolidated fund.

Besides, in the distribution paper, it appeared that of the whole sum

of money granted to the island of Grenada, 150,000*l.* had not been sent, and therefore the gross sum of 2,994,000*l.* was left as an excess.

Recapitulation of the Supplies according to the two Budgets.

		£.	£.
Navy	- - - - -	-	13,448,888
	Stated in November	12,538,888	
	Added in April	910,000	
Army	- - - - -	-	12,857,315
	Stated in November	10,112,950	
	Added in April	2,744,365	
Ordnance	- - - - -	-	1,303,580
	Stated in November	1,291,038	
	Added in April	12,541	
Miscellaneous	- - - - -	-	680,608
	Stated in November	673,000	
	Added in April	7,608	
For discharge of the national debt	- - - - -	-	200,000
Total of the supplies		£.	<u>28,490,391</u>

The principal variation which appeared in the two budgets, in the statement of the ways and means for the year 1798, was in the article of the assessed taxes, which the minister had estimated in November at *seven millions*; but from the various modifications which had been made in what was called the Treble Assessment Bill, he stated them in April at the sum of *four millions and a half*.

Here Mr. Pitt alluded to a tax, which though he did not mean to propose on that day, yet he thought it likely to receive the sanction of

the house; it had occupied a considerable share of the attention of the mercantile world, and had already been much discussed by the public. Without entering into a detail of the particulars, he remarked, that it referred to a state of war only—he meant such a tax upon exports and imports as might not tend in the least to the diminution of trade. As a remuneration to merchants for the payment of this tax, the government were to appoint strong convoys, so as to lessen the expense on insurance.

Summary of the Ways and Means for 1793.

	£.
Annual produce of the land and malt - - - -	2,750,000
Voluntary contribution - - - - -	1,500,000
The assessed taxes - - - - -	4,500,000
A duty upon imports and exports, which Mr. Pitt supposed would be saved to the merchant by the diminution of the insurance which would take place in consequence of regulations which were to be made respecting the sailing of convoys - - - - -	1,500,000
Bank advance on exchequer bills - - - - -	3,000,000
The loan, exclusive of two millions for Ireland - - - -	15,000,000
Lottery - - - - -	200,000
Total	£. 28,450,000

The next object to which he called the attention of the committee was the loan, and the advantageous terms upon which he had agreed for it. Messrs. Boyd and Co. being the lowest bidders on the annuity, were the purchasers of the loan on the following terms: viz.

	£.	s.	d.
For every 100l. subscribed, the subscribers had 150l. of consols at $48\frac{1}{2}$ when the bargain was made, valued at	72	11	3
Also each subscriber of 100l. had 50 of reduced at $47\frac{1}{2}$, valued at	22	16	3
And 4s. 11d. of long annuities at $13\frac{1}{2}$ years, valued at	4	4	$6\frac{1}{2}$
	99	12	$0\frac{1}{2}$
The discount for prompt payment was taken at	3	0	0
	£. 102	12	$0\frac{1}{4}$

This bargain, he said, was concluded at eight shillings interest less than the bargain of the preceding year. As eight millions of the loan were mortgaged on the general produce of the increased assessed taxes, the permanent addition to the national debt was only seven millions. He had therefore seven millions to find taxes for; and adding to this 200,000l. to be applied to the sinking fund, and taking the interest of the whole sum of 7,200,000l. at 8l. 5s. per cent. he had 577,000l. to provide for annually. He had thought of funding two or three millions of the

navy debt, but had since concluded that it would be better to leave it in its actual situation until peace. In the year 1792 it amounted to 2,745,000l.; but at the present time it exceeded 6,000,000l.; so that the interest to be provided for would be 186,000l. which added to the above-mentioned sum of 577,000l. amounted to 763,000l. for the interest of all the charges of the present year which was to be provided for by new taxes. The first tax for this purpose which he proposed was an additional duty of five shillings per bushel upon salt, the produce of which he estimated at 502,000l.

£102,000. annually. He supposed that the salt consumed upon an average annually in every family composed of the labouring class of people amounted to no more than half a bushel. He proposed, therefore, to lay only 2s. 6d. on each family of this description. He then proposed a duty of five pounds per cent. upon tea which sold for more than half-a-crown per lb.; which tax, he said, would not touch that species of tea in general use among the poorer classes of the people. This tax he estimated to produce the sum of £111,500.; for it was undeniable that the tea valued at above 2s. 6d. per lb. had considerably increased in the quantity of its consumption. The next subject to which he alluded as proper for taxation did not affect the necessaries of life, and the persons paying would have a choice either to make use of the article or not, which was a principle he wished to encourage. He wished to impose a duty upon every person using armorial bearings. He observed that it might be said, that he was a convert to the system of levelling, but he certainly proceeded upon very

opposite grounds, and was convinced that the country, instead of entertaining such sentiments, would be found ready to set a value upon that which was one of the most important links in society. Fashion and reason would therefore concur in giving effect to this measure. He therefore proposed that a tax of two guineas be imposed upon all persons using carriages decorated with armorial bearings; one guinea on those who were house-keepers and made use of plate decorated in the same manner; and 10s. 6d. on all other persons who were not house-keepers using their armorial bearings in other ways. The data upon which he proceeded to make an estimate of the produce of this tax were founded upon the inspection made by the heralds between 1615 and 1670, when it appeared that the number of the heads of families, by the last return given in the year 1670, amounted to 8405.—But allowing for many who had assumed armorial bearings since, he took the whole number at 9453, and the whole tax he estimated at £150,000.

RECAPITULATION.

	£.
New duty on salt - - - - -	502,000
On tea - - - - -	111,500
Armoial bearings - - - - -	150,000

Total amount - - 763,500

The interest for which these new taxes were to provide was the interest on
£15,000,000. at 8l. 5s.

On 3,713,000 navy debts, at 5 per cent. - - - - - 763,150

Mr. Pitt concluded by moving resolutions pursuant to the statements in his speech.

Sir Mathew White Ridley, and Sir William Pulteney, contended, that the proposed duty upon salt

would bear harder upon the lower orders of the people than the chancellor of the exchequer had stated; and that by the adoption of that tax, several manufacturers would be obliged to enlarge their capital, in order

order to carry on their business. Mr. Samuel Thornton thought that the pressure of the new duties upon imports and exports would be much too severe upon the East India company.

Mr. Tierney made several observations upon the subjects of this second budget of the minister. He said, that if this loan was a proof of the high and flourishing situation of this country, and of the confidence of monied men in its resources, he was very glad to hear it. But he objected to the tax on salt, as falling too heavily on the lower classes of the people. The tax on armorial bearings he rather considered as whimsical; until that moment he never had learnt the utility of the right honourable gentleman's having created so many peers. He advised him, however, to class the orders of distinction; to charge, for instance, a certain handsome sum for a coronet, a smaller sum for a crest, and so on; by which the lower orders of society might be relieved from some of their burdens.

The resolutions were then severally put and agreed to. On the next day the report of the committee upon those resolutions were agreed to, and the bills ordered to be brought in, which were afterwards severally passed into laws, with very little variation from the shape in which Mr. Pitt first proposed them.

Before we conclude this chapter, we have to notice another measure of finance adopted this session, at the suggestion of the chancellor of the exchequer, namely the repeal of the tax upon clocks and watches, and the consolidation of the several

duties upon houses and windows. Agreeably to notice he had given, he moved the repeal of the above-mentioned tax on the 14th of March. And as the exigencies of the state required that the deficiency should be made up by other means, he had the satisfaction of stating to the house, that the substitute he meant to propose in lieu of this tax, would be such as would afford as little discontent as possible. He remarked that the watch and clock duty had been calculated at about 200,000*l*. It was therefore requisite that whatever might be adopted instead should at least produce that sum; for this purpose he proposed an increase of the assessed taxes, in such way as would nearly accomplish this object. The produce of these taxes already amounted to about 1,400,000*l*. if therefore the intended increase was taken at a seventh of the whole, the sum thus obtained would amount to the sum required. But as he could not move for a repeal of a tax, and also introduce another in lieu of it on the same day, it was therefore postponed a few days. Accordingly on the 19th of March, he informed the house that it was his intention to consolidate, and insert into one table, the various duties now existing upon houses and windows, and he wished them to be regulated according to a table which he then held in his hand, and which was afterwards printed for the inspection and consideration of the members*.

When the report of the committee on increasing the assessed taxes was taken into consideration on the 21st of March—the chancellor of the exchequer stated to the house the principle on which

* See the scale for consolidating the above-mentioned duties in the 6th volume of Debrett's Debates, page 252.

he had brought forward his plan. The ratio which he had adopted, was that of laying an increased rate on each house in proportion to the number of windows. But in order to prevent windows from being stopped up, it had been found necessary in some parts of this scale to have a decrease instead of an increase. To use an uncommon expression, he observed, that the intended tax increased in a decreasing proportion.

Mr. Rose (the house having formed itself into a committee of ways and means on the 16th of May) remarked that the chancellor of the exchequer, when opening the budget to the house, and stating the ways and means, had taken credit for various sums, and among others, for a sum to be produced by some proposed new duties upon exports and imports. He first proposed a duty of one-half per cent. upon British goods exported to European markets: it had been at first intended to have made this duty much higher; but, upon deliberation, it had been found that it would be injurious to lay a large duty upon goods for those markets, because in some instances it might enable foreigners to undersell us. With respect to goods sent to America and the West Indies, he proposed a higher duty, because there was no danger of any competition. Upon goods exported to those places he therefore proposed a duty of two per cent. Goods exported to Ireland and the East Indies he meant to exempt from any new duties. He estimated that the amount of the duty upon exports to European markets would produce the sum of 256,000*l.* including some regulations respecting sugar and coffee. With respect to the imports, he meant to propose a

greater duty, viz. one of three per cent. With regard to the imports from the East Indies, he meant that the duty should fall upon those articles which came in competition with our manufactures, such as cotton, &c. With respect to sugar and coffee, articles which were re-exported, this addition would not be prejudicial, because there was no danger of any competition with us as to those articles in the European market. The whole of these duties he estimated at the sum of 1,170,000*l.* In addition to this, he proposed a duty upon tonnage, whether British or foreign, varying in amount according to the place of destination. This duty he estimated at 208,000*l.* which, added to the duties upon exports and imports, would amount to 1,378,000*l.* This sum was short of what the chancellor of the exchequer had estimated these duties at. This difference had taken place from imposing a less duty upon the exportation of British goods to European markets than had been at first intended.

The resolutions he had to propose, he said, were exceedingly numerous, because it was the wish of the merchants that the rates should be as specific as possible. Mr. Bryan Edwards, sir Francis Baring, and Mr. Tierney, made some observations upon the proposed duties: the first contended that the West India planters, who imported to the value of eight millions annually into this country, were so far from having given their approbation of this measure, that they did not even know of it. Sir Francis urged, that these duties would fall very heavy upon goods sent to America; this he thought impolitic, because America was our best customer. With respect to the continuance of these duties, Mr. Rose

affirmed

assured these gentlemen, that as this was a war-tax, it would certainly cease with the war. The resolutions were then agreed to, and the

report received the next day; upon which a bill was framed, brought in, and passed into a law in a few days.

CHAP. IV.

Alarms respecting an Invasion. Means proposed by Ministers for the Safety of the Kingdom. Motion of Mr. Dundas in the House of Commons to that Effect. Detail of the Plan—Debate on that Subject—In the Commons—In the Lords. Alien Bill—Debates on that Subject. Debates in the House of Commons on the Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act. Bill for more effectually manning the Navy—Debates on that Subject. Debate on the Slave Trade—Slave Carrying Bill—Slave Restraining Bill.

THE continued threats of invasion, which had been held out by the enemy, seem to have excited the apprehensions, and roused the attention of the British ministry soon after the meeting of parliament; and on the 11th of January a message was sent by his majesty to each house, soliciting their attention to that important subject. It was, however, some time before a plan could be matured to the satisfaction of ministers for the defence of the kingdom; and the necessity of agitating the subject in parliament deferred its execution, till the face of affairs in Europe began to assume a different appearance, and till the kingdom was in part relieved from the alarms excited by the formidable preparations on the opposite side of the channel. On the 8th of February, Mr. Dundas moved for the introduction of a bill to enable his majesty to call out a certain portion of the supplementary militia, and incorporate them in the companies of the regular militia. The bill was passed with little of debate; and on Tuesday, March 27, the same minister rose in pursuance of a notice

given the preceding day, to move for leave to bring in a bill, to enable his majesty to take measures for the more effectual security and defence of these realms, and to indemnify persons who might suffer injury in their property by the operation of such measures. It was an affair of the greatest importance, and he was aware, that on a motion for a bill of so general a description, gentlemen would ask, "whether we are not now in possession of a navy," which would render futile every attempt of the enemy to invade our coasts?" This he was ready to admit. But, notwithstanding the splendor of our naval character, there existed circumstances at that moment which rendered it imprudent to rest the defence of the country on one branch of its force. It might probably be asked, "is not our army the greatest we ever had? and can we not defend the country by means of the regular forces and the militia?" But notwithstanding these guarantees, he would not altogether rest on them our security and safety. Mr. Dundas then made some remarks on the spirit and zeal that distinguished the voluntary

voluntary exertions of the great body of the people in the different corps of yeomanry and county cavalry; these, he observed, were known friends of their country, and ready to come forward in its defence. But while he felt these sentiments of confidence in the general disposition of the people, he should think that the executive government did not enable the zeal and spirit of the country to come forward most effectually, were a measure like the present not adopted and pursued. Many reasons might be assigned for the zeal which distinguished the present period; however, it was sufficient to mention one, viz. that we were fighting for the deepest stake that ever the country had at issue in any contest. This was the opinion of wise men, even in the early stages of the French revolution. Mr. Dundas next made some remarks on the conduct of the French convention relative to their multiplied attempts to introduce anarchy among the people of England, by the emissaries of sedition and revolt. Happily, however, he remarked, the evil spirit had been observed lurking insidiously in the silence of the haunts sacred to sedition, and the enemies of order. The honourable secretary did not think it necessary to enter into a detail of the acts of parliament to prove that such was the state of things at that period; he thought it enough to mention it generally. — He said it was now his wish to state the object of the bill; in truth, it had two or three objects of importance connected with it. Already some counties had expressed a wish to adopt measures in their nature similar. For instance, Dorset, where propositions were made by the men of property, which in-

duced the sheriff to hold several meetings; but as from the nature of his office, he could only call out the *posse comitatus* in cases limited by circumstances of mere local urgency, these meetings had no other effect than giving a collected expression to the patriotism of that county. In other counties, the lord lieutenants had done more; but it was doubtful whether they could go beyond certain bounds. It was the object of this bill to provide for every possible emergency, by giving a power to his majesty to discover who were the persons prepared to appear in arms, to embody for their own defence. Another provision of the bill was to see what number of the inhabitants of certain districts would be able to act as pioneers, or in other laborious situations. He also remarked, that in the crisis of real danger, some persons might be influenced by motives of personal safety, or the natural wish of preserving their property, which might lead some to withdraw from their country; the present bill, however, would provide, that should the property of individuals be destroyed by a marching army, or fall into the enemy's hands, or be taken for the service of the country, indemnification should be rendered according to its value. The other provisions were, that in the event of its being necessary to employ persons as pioneers, to remove stock, or assist in facilitating the carriage of military stores, proper compensation would be made. The bill, he observed, was intended to give a power of embodying also a portion of the regular militia, and employing them in the defence of the country. — Upon these broad principles of justice, he was confident, the spirit of the country would be exerted ;

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and he believed that there was nothing that could infuse confidence into a people, and make them feel that their security depended on the measures taken for their defence, but enabling them to unite to defend themselves. Mr. Dundas next made some remarks on the conduct of certain individuals in this country, who, under the pretext of a parliamentary reform, were corresponding with the enemy on subjects highly treasonable. It must be obvious, that, however plausible affociations for reform might be at other times, the present was not a period fit either to propose or discuss that question. After making some observations on the conduct of the French relative to Genoa, Venice, and Switzerland, who had announced, he said, to their troops, that every battle gained, was an advantage over England—such an enemy, he said, it became us to oppose, who fought for nothing less than the destruction of our fleet, the annihilation of our commerce, and the overthrow of our constitution. He then moved, “That leave be given to bring in a bill to enable his majesty more effectually to provide for the security and defence of these realms, and to indemnify persons who may suffer injury in their property by the operation of such measures.”

General Tarleton did not rise to oppose the motion; but whatever might be the danger apprehended by ministers, he believed there did not exist in the country any body of men exclusively attached to France. The country, however, abounded in military resources, which, if rightly managed, would enable it to resist any enemy. In his opinion, the best way of providing for our defence would be

to examine the parts most vulnerable, and there put ourselves in a situation to resist the enemy. He could not be so well informed as ministers relative to the preparations going on in France; but it did not appear to him that they were such as could induce a belief in the probability of a speedy invasion. That they meant to make an attempt was evident, by the preparations in their dock-yards; and though much had been said of the impracticability of a successful descent on our coast, whatever was the situation of some places, he entertained no doubt of the practicability of landing. The general observed, that the military operations of France were conducted on a plan different from that of any other European power; a plan which had abolished the old transport system, while it facilitated the debarkation of troops; this, joined to the uncertainty where the enemy would land, induced him to recommend that all the attention of government might be directed to the defence of the metropolis, in the environs of which, he thought the efficient force of the country ought to be concentrated. He remarked, that it was no information to the French, and that he was therefore in order when he stated, that between London and any part of the coast there was no fortified place to resist the progress of the enemy. If they effected a landing, it must be at a considerable distance from the metropolis, perhaps 150 miles, which would take them six days to accomplish their march, during which period an advantageous situation might be taken to defend the capital. The general concluded by saying, that he had thrown out these observations from a sense of his duty to the house and the country,

try, but that he would not oppose the measure.

General Delancy said a few words in answer to general Tarleton. He remarked it was not true that no preparations had been made to put the country in a proper state of defence. The illustrious commander in chief had, he knew, with great productive diligence, applied himself to the consideration of the state of the country, and was able to draw out the forces to the best advantage.

Sir William Pulteney approved the plan which had that day been offered to the house, although he could have wished that a similar one had been brought forward at an earlier period: but it was not yet too late, and for the lateness of it, the country had only to use greater exertions. He agreed with the honourable general, that the metropolis ought to be guarded with a very great force; and also all the other great towns throughout the kingdom. With regard to the assertion of the right honourable gentleman (Mr. Dundas), that there was a large body of people in the country who wished to favour the designs of the enemy; for his part, he was sure that there were scarcely any of such a description; and if there were, they must be very few. Whatever opinions might have been once entertained concerning the French, he would venture to say they were now changed. He knew that many persons, in a moment of warmth, would say things of which they afterwards repented, and there was no circumstance that could serve to rouse the spirit and indignation of the country more effectually than the recent example of Switzerland.

Mr. Nicholls did not rise to oppose the measure, but to declare

it as his opinion, that all the exertions which could be made in consequence of this plan could produce but little effect, if the present system of coercion in Ireland was continued. There was no chance of making any effectual resistance whilst the people of the sister kingdom were kept down and oppressed; for the remaining part of the empire, he observed, could be but feebly supported. He made some remarks on the success of the French, relative to Austria and Rome; and said, that Naples and Spain were in danger of experiencing the same fate. No person could lament the fate of Switzerland more than he did. But what was the cause of their calamities? It was the divisions which had existed among them, which prevented them from making the necessary preparations to resist an invasion. Such, he said, must be the fate of this country, if that dreadful division existed between England and Ireland. It was of the most serious importance to consider of lenient measures, and the well-wishers of the British constitution should try all means, and do every thing in their power, to put an end to those dreadful divisions.

Mr. Wilberforce conceived it necessary for him to rise to give his support to the present measure; because he perceived there were some gentlemen on the opposite side of the house who, although they pretended to support it, yet gave it a kind of secret opposition. In his opinion, it became every man to be unanimous on an occasion like the present. He made some remarks upon what had fallen from the honourable baronet relative to the measure not having been adopted sooner. He observed, that for these three or four years past, the

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same plan was acted upon in spirit, and that similar measures, all tending to the defence of the country, had been adopted during the whole of that time. In that county, which he had the honour to represent, he could say, that great numbers of the people, who had never been in the habit of understanding military affairs, had come forward long ago, and offered their services for the defence of the country.

The people of York highly approved of the conduct of his majesty's present ministers, which they knew to be directed to the safety and advantage of the country. He would not trouble the house with any more observations, he found it necessary thus to declare what were the sentiments of his constituents, as well as to express the satisfaction he felt at hearing the present plan proposed.

Mr. Buxton said a few words in support of the present measure, and observed that he had proposed something similar in the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, where it had been approved of; and it was determined that carts and waggons should be in a state of readiness to carry away the property of farmers living near the coast.

Mr. Dundas rose to make a short reply to the honourable baronet, relative to the plan being attended with no expense: he said, no gentleman could suppose, that persons being employed in the business of being trained, &c. should have no compensation, though many of the volunteers had come forward and refused any pay at all.

Mr. Hobhouse rose to ask, whether persons under this plan would be forced to serve?

Mr. Tierney said he highly approved of the measure, and should have contented himself with giv-

ing it his silent vote, had not an honourable gentleman thrown out some ungrounded assertions against gentlemen on his side of the house, by saying that they had made a secret opposition to the intended plan. This he observed was an illiberal insinuation, and such as he might naturally expect to come from that quarter. "But (said Mr. Tierney) I will tell that honourable gentleman, that I am as animated in the cause of defending my country as he can be." When any gentleman in that house, he added, proposed a measure which he conceived had a tendency to promote the interest of the empire, he would ask, whether that man could be a friend to his country, or acted in a manner becoming a member of that house, who from any little petulance should sneer at what had been offered from the best intentions? For his part, he did not consider himself bound to give a blind support to any measure, though he highly approved of the present.

Mr. Wilberforce rose to explain, and said, he only meant to state to the house, that the language which had fallen from gentlemen on the other side of the house was not like that warm and cordial expression of sentiment which was naturally to be expected in a crisis so essentially different from all others that had ever occurred. In such a crisis, he thought, all ought to be united, that the people of the country without doors might be ready to put into execution those plans which the house might think proper to adopt.

The chancellor of the exchequer rose to make some remarks on what he termed the unwarrantable language thrown out by the honourable gentleman on the other side of the house towards his honourable

honourable friend (Mr. Wilberforce) which he said was the most unprovoked attack he had ever heard. It was rather extraordinary, because his honourable friend complained that certain members did not give their hearty support to the measures proposed; that the honourable gentleman on the other side of the house should make a direct and violent attack against his honourable friend, as if he had been convinced that the insinuation had been thrown out against *him*. The honourable gentleman had not been so warm in the important cause of the defence of the country as his honourable friend, for then he had not objected to the plan under discussion, one might, with great confidence, suppose, that his opinion in favour of it was too lukewarm. With respect to the honourable general's opinion as to the exact manner of defending the country, he would not pretend to discuss that point at present. The honourable general had alluded to the impracticability of driving away from the coasts the cattle of the farmers; he did not understand from him that we ought not to drive away the cattle in case of an invasion; but if he meant to say it ought not to be done, Mr. Pitt said he was the more surprised that the general should entertain an opinion of that kind, because from experience, as a military man, he ought to have known that it was expedient and necessary — The chancellor made also some remarks on what had fallen from an honourable member relative to the coercion in Ireland, who had compared the state of that country to that of Switzerland, and had endeavoured to show that the want of unanimity among the people of that confederacy had produced those

misfortunes in which they were at present involved, and had thus laboured to prove that similar calamities impended over this country. The honourable gentleman, he said, should know, that the British parliament, and the British government, during the whole of his present majesty's reign, had shown every indulgence, and granted every possible favour to that country. "The hon. gentleman speaks (said Mr. Pitt) of conciliation with Ireland: do *such* honourable gentlemen mean, that we should make every concession, and every sacrifice, to traitors and rebels? to men who are industriously propagating the most dangerous principles, wantonly seducing and educating the ignorant multitude under the specious pretence of parliamentary reform? No! the only measure of safety we can adopt, is a vigorous system of opposition to those who would completely destroy the country." He concluded by saying, he trusted that the example of Switzerland, that brave, but unhappy people, would animate this country to vigorous and necessary exertions, that we might avoid those misfortunes into which they had unfortunately fallen.

Leave being given to bring in the bill, it was accordingly presented, and ordered to be read a second time the next day.

On Wednesday, March 28, the chancellor of the exchequer moved the order of the day for the second reading of the bill, relative to the defence of the nation, and to indemnify persons who might suffer in their property by such measures.

The bill was then read a second time, and on the following day the house resolved itself into a committee to consider of the same bill.

Mr. secretary Dundas said, that since the bill had been before the house, he had endeavoured to alter it according to various suggestions he had received—he did not know whether those alterations would come fully up to the desires of those who proposed them. However, he observed, that as the service required by the bill was to be wholly voluntary, he proposed to omit the exceptions in favour of particular persons.

Mr. Tierney declared himself extremely anxious not to disturb that unanimity which appeared so general in favour of the measure; yet he could not admit it to pass precisely in the form in which it stood: he approved of the service being voluntary, but he apprehended that the bill, as it was worded, would, without using actual compulsion, do worse; for it would put those who did not enter in a very invidious situation. There were many situations in life which rendered it impossible for men to attend in order to be regularly trained and arrayed, who, when real danger approached, would be found to be as cordial and zealous as any others. He wished the service to be voluntary, and that the measure should go so far, as that the king should know what number, and of what description, he should call upon, distinguishing those who were willing to come forward immediately; as it was, one man, he said, would come forward in glowing language of zeal to offer his services, while another, not less zealous, would be branded with the imputation of coldness to the cause. This, then, was the only part to which he had any positive objection, as, in his opinion, it would have a tendency to create invidious distinctions.

Mr. Dundas said, that the hon. gentleman (Mr. Tierney) would see, on consideration, that the bill must remain as it was, or it would have no effect. Having said so much, he would add, that if there was any difference as to the provisions, it was not owing to any difference of spirit. But if the provisions were otherwise, the commanding officer of any district would not know how to apply. But in order for a commander to know what he was to expect from the volunteers, they must first ascertain the nature of their services; and this could only be done by a return of the lord-lieutenant of the particular state, that there were such a number of persons for such a purpose, and so forth: but if left at a loss, as to the distribution, a considerable part of the benefit would be lost. In order, however, to obviate Mr. Tierney's objections, he had left out all that related to the publication of names on the church doors, with which

Mr. Tierney now declared himself satisfied.

On Saturday, March 31, Mr. Douglas brought up the report of the committee on the bill for the defence of the nation, when

Mr. secretary Dundas proposed several additional clauses, which were agreed to.

The solicitor-general proposed a clause to empower the deputy lieutenants to make compensation to the clerks, &c. to be paid by the receiver-general of the land tax in the county; and after some conversation, it was agreed, that no expenses should be paid, unless confirmed by a general meeting of the county.

Mr. Dundas said, he that morning received several letters from farmers in the county of Kent, stating

stating their willingness to serve in various capacities against the enemy, in case of invasion. However, he said, they were desirous to be called out only upon such emergency as might induce the commanding officer of the district to drive cattle, remove property, &c. Therefore, on the third reading of the bill, he should move for a clause to accommodate the farmers, by not calling them out, except in cases of real necessity.

The report being then agreed to,

Mr. Hussey expressed a wish that the bill, with its amendments, should be printed. He was fearful, he said, that the alterations which were made would have a tendency to destroy that energy which it was at first calculated to inspire.

Mr. Dundas said, the alterations were, in his opinion, only such as were necessary; and begged Mr. Hussey then to state in what manner he thought such an injurious effect was like to be produced?

Mr. Hussey replied, that he was not then prepared to state any thing on the subject, but thought it advisable that the bill should be printed.

Mr. Dundas, understanding from the speaker that the printing of the bill would be no delay to its passing, said he should move, that it be printed and read a third time on Monday next, if then engrossed.

On the motion of the third reading of the bill, more effectually to provide for the security of the nation, &c.

Mr. Nicholls said, he would not resist the demand of the additional powers about to be granted by this bill; but, desired that it might be understood, he concurred in it solely on the ground that these additional powers were necessary for our defence—that if the minister

availed himself of this bill, to detach a part of our regular army to enforce a system of coercion in Ireland, his concurrence to this bill was procured by deception.—History had shown us that all attempts to coerce free men, who complain of their rights being violated, have been uniformly ineffectual.

(Mr. Nicholls was here called to order by Mr. Banks.)

The speaker, however, observed, that he thought the honourable gentleman perfectly regular, otherwise he would have called him to order.

Mr. Nicholls then proceeded, by observing, that if those powers were wanted for the defence of the realm, he assented to the grant; but if for the coercion of Ireland, he thought it is duty to resist the demand. The king had lost six millions of subjects in America by the folly of former ministers.

Mr. Nicholls was now called to order by the speaker, as digressing into the American war. But he apologised, and again proceeded, and made some farther remarks relative to coercion in Ireland; but was called to order, and sat down.

The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that if the honourable gentleman who had just sat down was not disorderly, his observations, at least, were superfluous, as Ireland was not so much as hinted at: for his part, he would never suffer any gentleman to carry his ignorance so far as to indulge wantonly the most mischievous misrepresentations relative to Ireland, and to represent men in open rebellion as struggling for the enjoyment of their legal rights. Was that honourable gentleman duly aware, that while he thus spoke of relaxing the just severity of government against such

men as he had described, he was only encouraging the apostles of the Rights of Man, who, after the imitation of France, were spreading through every part of Ireland, carnage, bloodshed, and devastation, he would be rather disposed to strengthen the hands of government, by which alone this daring and outrageous spirit could be suppressed, than contribute to give it countenance.

Mr. Nicholls rose to explain; but as he digressed into the state of Ireland he was reminded by the speaker that it was not explanation.

The chancellor of the exchequer then brought up a clause, enacting, that all those who should enrol themselves in volunteer corps should not be called out but in case of actual invasion, or in case of real danger, &c.

This clause was added to the bill, which was then read a third time and passed.

On Friday the 20th of April, the same subject was agitated in the house of lords.—On that day a message was brought down from his majesty of the same tenor as that to the house of commons; viz. to enable his majesty to provide more effectually for the defence of the nation.

Lord Grenville then rose and remarked, that the message so fully explained the points to which the attention of their lordships was directed, that he should say but a very few words in support of the address to his majesty which he had to propose. Their lordships were now called upon to give another pledge to the principles which they had professed, and to demonstrate that their spirit and energy rose with the danger to which they were exposed. In guarding against the open hostility of an enemy abroad,

their lordships would likewise extend their vigilance to check the hopes which they might entertain from their abettors at home. He should say nothing farther, therefore, in support of the address. The measure which he meant to propose after the address was disposed of, was one which their ancestors had often adopted in cases of far less urgency and danger than the present. He should therefore content himself with moving the address.

The question being then put, it was carried *nemine dissentiente*.

Another measure of precaution, which ministers thought it necessary to adopt in the course of the session, was the revival of the alien bill.—On the 29th of March, the bill was introduced to the house, in an amended state, by the solicitor-general; who again, on the 19th of April, moved the order of the day upon that bill; which being read, the house resolved itself into a committee of the whole house.

The secretary at war began by remarking several of the vulgar prejudices which gentlemen ought to guard against on the present subject relative to foreigners. Thus, there was a very prevalent error concerning every foreigner, that he must be a Frenchman, and that every Frenchman must of necessity be an emigrant. Thus, it had been stated in the house, that a person had been apprehended who was neither a Frenchman nor an emigrant, and, as it turned out, had not been guilty of any crime. There were other mistaken opinions; thus, some were apt to see in emigrants nothing but persons coming into this country in distress; and in this view it was surely no light matter to expel persons merely because they were distressed, not
from

from mere surmise or fancied apprehension of danger. But in his opinion the emigrants ought to be considered as men who had made great sacrifices for their loyalty and attachment to their ancient government: many of them were the respectable representatives of all that remained of the clergy, nobility, magistracy, and proprietary of the land: therefore had a claim to be considered not merely as suffering individuals, but also in their collective and representative capacity, which was of greater consequence. He thought the country bound, not upon light grounds, to withhold that asylum and assistance they had hitherto received from this country; for that would be putting them in a worse situation than if they had never been taken under our protection. Those who wished the expulsion of the emigrants, did so merely from an apprehension of danger to this country: He would ask, what instance could be produced during the long period of the present war of these emigrants proving untrue, or betraying whatever trust was reposed in them? They composed a part of the army of the duke of York, upon the continent: had they proved betrayers of their trust then, or been deficient in their duty? He also made some remarks on their conduct in the corps of Rohan, of la Châtre, of Montalembert, and of the army of the prince of Condé, where, he observed, whole ranks were to be found composed of persons who had been loaded with honours for their services. He did not doubt but some worthless characters might be found amongst the emigrants, as was the case in every community; but this did not extend to the general body, in many of whom, he meant the French nobility, he could place all

possible confidence with regard to his own life, and, what he did not value less, the safety and honour of his country. He concluded, by saying, he hoped the wisdom and prudence of that house would not give countenance to the impression, that in case of invasion, the French emigrants would turn upon their benefactors. Were this impression to gain ground, it might endanger the safety and lives of this unfortunate description of persons.

Mr. Tierney rose to repeat his reasons relative to having voted for the suspension of the habeas corpus act, and said, when a message came from his majesty, stating that a correspondence existed between certain persons in this country and France, a man would pause before he voted for a measure which has the effect of depriving the public for a time of one of the great bulwarks of freedom; but under this administration, and under the present circumstances of this country, he had voted for the suspension of the habeas corpus act, wishing, however, not to strengthen administration, but the executive government. Mr. Tierney next made some pointed remarks on the conduct of the secretary at war, which, he said, was the most inhuman he had ever witnessed before, viz. to Mr. O'Connor, a gentleman with whom he had long lived in terms of the greatest friendship; "and I will say, (said Mr. Tierney,) that I never met a more intelligent man in my life, or a better friend to the constitution. With respect to the brother of Mr. O'Connor, who was confined in Ireland under a very serious charge, and who was brought to trial, no witnesses appeared, nor was the shadow of a proof adduced against him. The learned judge before whom he was

rought for trial, lamented that no evidence was brought forward. Thank God, we have no such judge in England!" Mr. Tierney was proceeding, when he was called to order by Mr. Carew.

Mr. Tierney acknowledged that he was not speaking strictly to the question; but what he said grew out of what was insinuated by the secretary at war. He was continuing his remarks relative to Mr. O'Connor, but was called to order by the chancellor of the exchequer,

Who stated his reason for calling the honourable gentleman to order, viz. that he was making his remarks on a cause now pending in a court of justice, and which now stood for trial. In his proceeding thus, he must do one of two things; either he must make a false impression upon the public, and prejudice the public mind against the prosecution, or compel his majesty's ministers to disclose that which might make a false impression, and create a prejudice against those who are charged. It was therefore impossible to proceed with this discussion with propriety. The honourable gentleman had made some remarks on the conduct of the judge who was appointed to try Mr. O'Connor, and said, he lamented that no evidence was brought forward. This, he observed, was not a correct statement. The sentiment was this;—"that it would have given him more satisfaction, if Mr. O'Connor had been pronounced innocent, on a full trial of the merits of the case, instead of there being no witnesses called."

Mr. Tierney said, he would retract what he had said against the learned judge, if the facts were as the minister now stated them, as he knew nothing of the case but what appeared in the newspapers.

Mr. Buxton said, he must withdraw if any thing more was suffered to go on respecting Mr. O'Connor, because he was one of the grand jury who found the bill.

Lord Malden thought that whilst the emigrants conducted themselves with propriety, it would be cruel to proscribe them. At the same time he suggested the propriety of removing them to some distance from the metropolis.

Mr. Jones professed himself wholly unsatisfied as to the propriety of suffering so many emigrants to remain in this country.

The chancellor of the exchequer made a short reply.

General Tarleton thought there were some of the emigrants who might be serviceable at the present crisis.

Mr. Jefferys (of Coventry) spoke in favour of the bill.

Mr. H. Brown approved of the bill, as a proper measure of caution; but he wished to bear his testimony to the general good conduct of the emigrants.

The solicitor-general wished to explain the object of a new clause, which he intended to propose. By the former act, captains of ships were obliged to deliver to the officers of the customs, at the port where they arrived, a list of the foreigners they had on board; but there existed no power to prevent them from landing, therefore he wished to introduce a clause to give a power to prevent them from landing, until they had permission.

Mr. Jolliffe made some remarks on the harsh language made use of in the preamble of the bill against the enemy, which he thought unworthy the dignity of the country.

The chancellor of the exchequer defended the language, and said, that tyranny and oppression were
now

now universally imputed to the government of Robespierre by every party in France.

The solicitor-general said, he thought the man unworthy the character of an Englishman who was afraid to speak the language of truth to the enemy.

Mr. Jolliffe said, if the learned gentleman did not retract, or explain the observation he had made, he must expect to hear from him in another manner.

The chancellor of the exchequer said, that nothing could be intended personal to the honourable gentleman. His learned friend had stated his proposition generally.

The solicitor-general said, he would so far retract what he had said. What he said was generally spoken.

Mr. Jolliffe then declared himself satisfied with the explanation.

The chancellor of the exchequer suggested, that it would be better that his learned friend should bring up his clauses, that they should be read *pro forma*, and the discussion postponed till another day. This was agreed to, and the bill ordered to be printed.

On Friday, April 27, the house agreed to the amendments of the committee on the alien bill.

Mr. Jones proposed a clause, which was, that the secretary of state should take a security from every alien, or French emigrant in this country.

The secretary at war reproached the principle of it, as having a cruel tendency, and pronounced a warm panegyric on the emigrants for their attachment to their sovereign and constitution.

Mr. Jones said, his main object was to separate the good from the bad. He observed, that there were 20,000 servants, Englishmen, out

of place, and as many French employed; this circumstance he thought ought to be attended to.

The chancellor of the exchequer said, the honourable gentleman who spoke last had taken a very strange method of separating the good from the bad, for his method had a tendency to confound both good and bad together. He observed, that the emigrants had offered to take arms in defence of this country, and he was confident they would not betray it. From this consideration we would not be so ungenerous as to refuse protection, nor would they be ungrateful. As to aliens, whether French or others, on whom any reasonable suspicion fell, government would take every precaution necessary for the interest of this country.

Mr. Martin said, he applauded the motives of the hon. gentleman who proposed the clause; but hoped he had heard enough to induce him to withdraw it.

Mr. Jones said, he had done his duty in proposing the clause.

The clause was then withdrawn, after which the alien bill was read a third time and passed.

The bill for the suspension of the habeas corpus act was revived during the course of the session, in consequence of the supposed connexion of the united Irishmen with traitors in this country, and, on the 20th of April, after a message from his majesty had been received, stating farther accounts relative to the preparations for invasion making in France, the house of commons were informed that the lords had passed a bill, intituled "an act to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as he may suspect to be conspiring against his person and government."

On a motion from Mr. secretary Dundas, that the bill be read a first time, -

Mr. Sheridan rose and said, he was so tenacious of the liberty of the subject, that he could not assent to such a measure without much stronger proofs of its necessity than any which had yet been given. It might be said, that there were persons now under trial; and that therefore to produce specific evidence in support of the necessity of the bill now before the house, would be doing that which might operate to the prejudice of such accused persons. To this he would answer, that the very passing of such a bill as this, was in truth creating the greatest alarm, and raising the highest prejudices. Indeed there was not before the house at present so plausible a ground for suspending the habeas corpus act as there was when it was last suspended. Then a committee of each house of parliament sat for several days, and declared their opinion to be, that there existed in this country a conspiracy against its constitution and government, and the legislature acted upon that report. Here there was no evidence; on the contrary, the assurance of the chancellor of the exchequer tended to show that there existed, at the moment he made it, in this country a general spirit of loyalty and attachment to the government. He therefore considered the present measure rather unnecessary than otherwise, and concluded by giving his decided negative to the bill.

The chancellor of the exchequer replied, that with regard to the existence of a conspiracy, what he had said had been misrepresented by the honourable gentleman.

That loyalty, indeed, he was happy to say was general; but so general was he from the right to be unanimous, that on the contrary he expressly asserted, that although a large portion were favourable to the government, there were a considerable number of persons too considerable, both in number and activity, to be passed unnoticed, whose conduct was opposite to the general sense of the nation. Was it then to be contended that because these circumstances were so plain as to call forth the zeal of almost every man in the country except its enemies, that therefore we were to take no precaution whatever for our own safety?

The honourable gentleman had said there was a period when we did not think it necessary to take this precaution, without laying before parliament evidences very different from those which were before it now. There was indeed a time when evil-disposed persons were active; but would the honourable gentleman undertake to say, that the preparations made by the enemy for a descent upon this country were at any other period during the war ever so ripe, so extensive, or so truly alarming as at the present crisis. The French government, freed from the perplexities and struggles in which it had been involved by the military exertions of the continental powers, was at liberty to employ its troops directly against us, who had so gloriously opposed the torrent of general anarchy, and manfully continued the contest against all the force and machinations which it could employ. The honourable gentleman did feel, from the natural effusion of the warmth and impassioned sentiment of patriotism which he had delivered,

delivered, that the zealous co-operation of every individual was required at this important crisis in the defence of the country, and surely he would not now attempt to weaken that desirable end by his opposition to a bill which directly went to invigorate the public mind, by freeing every well-disposed person from the apprehension and dismay to which they were liable by suffering men tainted with principles hostile to the constitution to remain at large, to contrive and carry into execution their horrid projects. That there were men disaffected to government, no doubt could possibly exist, for the preamble of the bill was proved in the most satisfactory manner, by clear and notorious testimony, and the consequence followed of course. He therefore earnestly called upon the house, and the hon. gentleman in particular, to agree to the bill, and not to suffer the enemy first to come here, and proceed afterwards to deliberate.

Mr. Sheridan replied, that he wished to act on principle, and not on confidence. He was told, indeed, that the French had published their intention of invading the country, and that they trusted to the aid of traitors here: he did not think that much credit was due to that assertion. For the French themselves had stated, that they would be joined in this country by all the friends of parliamentary reform: taking that as a specimen, either of their judgment or veracity, there did not seem to him to be much reliance due to either. He was clearly of opinion, that this country ought to be well prepared to meet the enemy; that could only be done in raising the spirit of the people; but, in his opinion, to deprive them of so material a bulwark

as the habeas corpus act, was not the way to do it, but would have a tendency to spread discontent and division.

On the question being put "that this bill be now read," the house divided,

Ayes - - - - - 183

Noes - - - - - 5

Majority - 178

Mr. Sheridan then said a few words for shortening the duration of the bill.

The chancellor of the exchequer thought it advisable to continue the bill after the present session; and to limit its duration to a shorter period than that which was specified might possibly prevent the members of that house from being active in different parts of the country in the manner they might wish to be.

The speaker observed, that the question relating to the duration of the bill could only be discussed in the committee; and that if the bill had originated in that house, the part of it which respected the duration must have been in blank.

Mr. Hobhouse said a few words relative to the suspension of the habeas corpus act, and contended, that he saw no necessity for the measure.

Mr. Tierney also said a few words in justification of his voting for the suspension of the habeas corpus act; and contended that he voted upon much better evidence than upon the word of the minister, for the preamble of the present bill was founded upon the verdict of the grand jury; and said it was upon the verdict of the jury he founded his vote, and he thought that no man ought to be ashamed to give a vote of confidence upon a verdict of a jury of his country.

The

The question was then put for the second reading, and carried.

The chancellor of the exchequer asked, if any gentleman had any amendments to propose?

Mr. Tierney said he saw no necessity for continuing the bill till the first of February, because the next session would commence long before that period; therefore he wished that the bill might be limited to the first of November.

The speaker suggested, that this conversation could only be regular in a committee.

The question was then put, that the bill be committed, and ordered.

The house being in a committee, lord Hawkesbury in the chair:

Mr. Tierney moved, that the duration of the bill should be only till the first of November, or for ten days after the commencement of the next session of parliament.

The chancellor of the exchequer wished to know, whether the honourable gentleman intended to fix it for the first of November next? as there might be a material difference betwixt that and ten days after the beginning of the session.

Mr. Tierney answered, that he wished to leave it to the first of November.

The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that the date of the expiration of the bill would thus be made absolute, when, perhaps, the personal services of members might be so employed, as to prevent the assembling of that house.

Mr. Tierney could not conceive any situation of affairs, without the whole country was in the enemy's possession, in which the parliament could not meet.

The chancellor of the exchequer doubted whether they could meet with that full attendance necessary to the discussion of the question,

without calling too many away from objects of equal or greater importance.

Mr. Sheridan again repeated his objections to the whole of the measure, and replied to Mr. Tierney relative to the measure being borne out by the verdict of a grand jury; and said, that the last suspension, to which he had objected, was founded on equally good authority, being found by a committee of both houses of parliament; for both the grand jury and the committees proceeded on *ex parte* evidence. He said, he could not forget the consequences of the last suspension, when about a hundred persons had been apprehended, and all of them discharged, without a spot of guilt, after a rigid and long confinement.

Mr. Tierney admitted, that the verdict of the committees and the grand jury proceeded on *ex parte* evidence; but that he preferred the verdict of the grand jury, as being less under the influence of the minister.

The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that the persons to whom the honourable gentleman (Mr. Sheridan) had alluded were not longer in custody than they might be by the law of treason as it ever stood.

General Tarleton supported the amendment, on the ground that, with respect to this country, the danger of an invasion must be over by the first of November, though it might be greater as to the sister kingdom.

Ayes (for the amendment)	14
Noes	131
<hr/>	
Majority	117

The duration of the bill, therefore,

fore, was fixed till the first of February.

The bill then went through all its stages, and was passed.

As the alarm of an invasion still continued to operate on the ministers, on the 25th of May the chancellor of the exchequer moved for leave to bring in a bill for the more effectual manning of the navy. The object he had in view was to suspend for a limited time the protections which various descriptions of persons enjoyed, to prevent them from being impressed into the service of the navy. It was his wish, he said, that the bill should this day pass through its different stages, with a suitable pause at each, if required; and that it should be sent to the lords for their concurrence. Mr. Pitt concluded, by moving for leave to bring in a bill, for the more speedy and effectual manning of the navy.

Mr. Tierney said, the very extraordinary manner in which the right honourable gentleman called upon the house to adopt this measure could not fail to create great alarm. He had imagined, that the augmentation of the navy was to be provided for in the usual way; or if any very uncommon mode was to be resorted to for the attainment of that object, notice should have been given to the house. For his part, he had heard no arguments, that proved its propriety; and even if he had, some time ought to have been allowed him to weigh the force of such arguments before he proceeded to give three or four votes on a measure of which no notice of any kind had been given. If the honourable gentleman persisted in hurrying the bill through the house in the manner proposed, he must give it his decided negative.

Indeed, from what he had lately seen, he must view all the measures of ministers as hostile to the liberty of the subject.

The chancellor of the exchequer replied, that if every measure adopted against the designs of France was to be considered as hostile to the liberty of this country, then, indeed, his idea of liberty differed widely from that of the honourable gentleman. He observed, that he had given notice before of the present motion; and that, were it not passed in a day, those whom it might concern might elude its effects. But if the measure was necessary, and that a notice of it would enable its effects to be eluded, how could the honourable gentleman's opposition to it be accounted for, but from a desire to obstruct the defence of the country?

Mr. Tierney called the right honourable gentleman to order.

The speaker observed, that whatever had a tendency to throw suspicion on the sentiments of a member, if conveyed in language that clearly marked that intention, was certainly irregular; this the house would judge of; but they would wait to hear the right honourable gentleman's explanation.

The chancellor of the exchequer replied, if the house waited for his explanation, he feared it must wait a long time. He knew very well that it was unparliamentary to state the motives that actuated the opinions of gentlemen; but it was impossible to go into arguments in favour of a question, without sometimes hinting at the motives that induced an opposition to it. He submitted to the judgment of the house the propriety of what he urged, and he would not depart from any thing

thing he had advanced, by either retracting or explaining them *.

Mr. Jolliffe approved of the measure.

Leave was given to bring in the bill; and, on the motion of its being read a second time, Mr. Nicholls observed, that he could not bring himself to consent to passing the bill with such rapidity. It was a measure of great severity, and ought to be impartially and maturely considered. He said, if a bill might be suddenly introduced, and suddenly passed, there would be no longer any security for our rights.

Mr. alderman Lushington said, that as a member of the corporation of London, he would never agree to the present bill, unless he believed there was some strong emergency to justify it.

Mr. Curwen spoke in favour of the bill.

On the motion, that the bill be read a second time, it was opposed by Mr. Hobhouse, who said, he could not but reprobate the mode proposed for the augmentation of our navy, as a gross violation of our rights; for after passing a law, by which no ship was to be permitted to sail without a convoy, they were now about to pass another, by which no ship would be permitted to have sailors!

The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that the present case was more than an ordinary emergency, and justified (if any occasion could) the taking away certain privileges. Parliament had already assented to measures of a similar tendency, with the exception of a very few persons, who could not be supposed

ed much to derange that general harmony.

Mr. Wigley contended, that the manner proposed for carrying the bill suddenly through the house could not be supported by the journals; therefore he would give his negative to the second reading.

General Tarleton would not vote against the measure, though he disapproved of it.

The solicitor-general defended the necessity of the measure; but wished that one description of persons might be exempted; viz. the inhabitants of the coasts, who were mostly seamen.

The chancellor of the exchequer said the bill would not affect that class of people alluded to.

Sir Francis Baring said, it appeared, that 6000 of the intended seamen were already provided. He hoped that those seamen would not be affected, who had voluntarily enrolled themselves for particular services.

The chancellor of the exchequer said, nothing in the bill applied to them.

The bill was then read a second time.

The bill being in a committee, the blanks were filled up; the duration of the bill was limited to one month, as far as it suspended protections in the coal trade, and five months in other cases.

The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that it should commence from the 24th of May instant.

Mr. Wigley objected to the date: he thought it a dangerous thing in itself, as well as dangerous in precedent to make such a law as

* The offensive words spoken by the chancellor of the exchequer in this debate, and his obstinacy in refusing to retract them, was the occasion of a very extraordinary duel, which took place between him and Mr. Tierney on the following *Lord's-day*; an account of which will be found in our Domestic Occurrences.

that to operate in an *ex post facto* manner.

The chancellor of the exchequer made a short reply.

Mr. Wiggley then proposed an amendment, viz. that the operation should commence on the 27th, instead of the 24th of the present month. The motion was, however, put and carried for the 24th.

The bill then went through all its stages, and was ordered to be carried to the lords; and in a few minutes the house was informed that their lordships had agreed to the bill.

The business of the slave trade has been so frequently agitated, that a very short account will suffice of the debate which took place on the subject this session.

On the 3d of April Mr. Wilberforce, in a very impressive speech, addressed the house once more for the abolition of that abominable species of commerce; a subject on which, he said, so many new and powerful feelings rushed into his mind, as almost to disqualify him for the cool and deliberate discharge of the duty he was now undertaking. It was a matter of solid comfort to his mind, that whatever were the various feelings which the present occasion called forth within him, the feeling of remorse was not of the number. His conscience did not reproach him with having betrayed or neglected this important business; and it was because he was resolved to continue a stranger to this worst species of accusation, that he was again about to bring forward the question. He begged, therefore, the resolution to be read which had passed in 1792, declaring that the slave trade should cease from and after the first of January, 1796. This being read—The circumstances, he said, under

which the house came to that determination, were well worthy of remark. All the charges he had brought against the slave trade were substantiated, and the truth of them acknowledged by his warmest opponents. The slave trade was proved to be the cause of long and extended wars, between nation and nation, which produced innumerable acts of individual depredation. The petty chieftains were rendered the oppressors and ravagers of the very districts of which they were the natural guardians. Mr. Wilberforce then mentioned a most striking fact in proof of his assertion: that two gentlemen being employed by the Sierra Leone company, had penetrated to a considerable distance in-land, where the face of a white man had never been seen.—They found the state of society more advanced, by two or three centuries, than upon the coast, where the natives had intercourse with the most polished nations of Europe for two or three hundred years before. This proved, that our interference tended only to corrupt, darken, and barbarise; and that it must be the ardent wish of these African savages to be left unmolested in their native deserts, and not be cursed by our ruinous intrusion. Mr. Wilberforce remarked, that even they who could not bring themselves to vote for immediate abolition, yet condemned the slave trade in the strongest terms of reprobation. His right honourable friend, with a minuteness of research, and detail of calculation, had established beyond dispute, that the slaves actually in the islands were sufficient in number to ensure the population being maintained without any fresh recruits from Africa. But even they, who contended, that some additions to the population

population were necessary, could not deny that these had more than been supplied by the multitudes which had been brought from Africa, from the year 1792, to the present period.

It might be alleged, that last year the house of commons had addressed the crown, humbly requesting his majesty to send instructions to the governors of the West-India islands, directing them to concert such measures, with the different legislative assemblies, as, by promoting the population of the islands, might gradually render the slave trade less necessary, and finally lead to its total termination. But so far was this from being the case, that the very contrary was the truth. The measure adopted last year, without that which he was now bringing forward, would be illusory and unavailing; but associated with abolition, it would be efficient and complete. The right honourable gentleman (Mr. Dundas) had proposed an address to the crown, similar to that which had been adopted last year: the right honourable gentleman differed with Mr. Wilberforce as to the time when this abolition should take place; but concurred with him in thinking that its duration ought to be limited. Mr. Wilberforce then took a view of the regulations framed by the colonial legislatures with respect to the population of the islands, and also of the food, religion, and necessary correction; and contended, that no set of regulations would be framed which would be universally applicable. Considering how difficult it would be to attempt to enter the practice of these legislative provisions, which would go to the interior of every domestic arrangement, could it be supposed that it would be sub-

mitted to? For what? For the avowed purpose of accelerating the abolition of the slave trade; an event which the West-Indians in general have frankly confessed they consider as in the highest degree injurious to their interests. With regard to any regulations operating in the West-Indies for the protection of slaves, gentlemen must bear in mind, that there is a certain *esprit de corps*, which, varying in nature and kind, naturally belonged to every community. In the West-Indies, it was a fellow-feeling for the rights and authority of masters: some curious proofs of this were afforded by the papers recently transmitted from the colonial assemblies, and laid on the table of the house. It appears that the committee of the assembly of St. Christopher's, when the *esprit de corps* was in action for the defence of all the planters in general, against charges never urged but against individuals, maintained that all was perfect in their management; yet that assembly frankly declared, that the allowances of food given by masters to their slaves were too small to enable them to go through their work with spirit. Mr. Wilberforce next made some remarks on the criminal courts of justice in the West-Indies, and particularly that of St. Christopher's, which pretended to have taken cognisance of the barbarous treatment of slaves in the same manner as crimes of a similar nature committed against white men. The act of assembly, which was passed in 1783, expressly declares, that "any owner or possessor of any negro, or other slave, who shall wilfully or wantonly cut out the tongue, put out an eye, slit the nose, ear, or lip, &c. &c. shall be fined five hundred pounds, and imprisoned for six months." Mr.

Wilberforce

Wilberforce then produced an instance which took place in the year 1784, where the penalty was not sanctioned by the courts: for two delinquents being convicted, were only fined, one in 100l., the other 50l.; and in neither case was there any imprisonment. He next mentioned another case, to show that the court did not not take that cognisance of the ill-treatment of slaves which they pretended, and to prove that negroes did not enjoy the same legal right and protection as the white people. But in addition to this, let it be remembered, that the assemblies, and particularly that of Jamaica, have always plainly acknowledged, that it was their object to go on importing until they should have brought into cultivation all their barren lands, amounting to more than twice the number which are now cultivated.

He then made some observations on the extreme danger of insurrections, and on the new grounds of apprehension which were laid in the emancipating system introduced by the French into their islands; and said, could we be weak enough to believe, that our islands would remain in their present state in the vicinity of the French islands, in which the slaves were relieved from all the galling marks of inferiority. He said he had been at the trouble to inquire into the number of slave ships taken on their passage from Africa to the West Indies, which, he said, were all carried by the French to some port in their islands, where they were made free, and trained as soldiers. The number was considerable: in the year 1796, there were above three thousand of these; in 1797, above 1700; which in fact furnished our enemy with the best instruments for the

subjugation of our islands. Mr. Wilberforce then made some observations on the petition which he had that day presented from a body of respectable men (the Quakers), whose unwearied efforts in this great cause did them the highest honour. He concluded by saying, if in times like these especially, if we have any sense of the value of the favour of Heaven, if we have any feeling of justice and humanity, let us no longer hesitate to do that which has been too long delayed, but embrace the opportunity which is afforded us of rescuing a great continent from the destructive ravages to which it has been doomed for centuries by our selfishness and rapacity. He then moved for leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave trade, &c.

Mr. B. Edwards desired that the address which had been presented to his Majesty in 1797, concerning the abolition of the slave trade, might be now read; which being done, he then proceeded to show that its object was to recommend to the colonies the adoption of such measures as might lead to a gradual abolition of this trade. Those who supported the address, as well as those who wished for an immediate abolition, were equally sincere in their desire that such measures might be adopted as might finally tend to abolish the trade; but they were far from intending that this object was to be accomplished by any sudden violence, such as he might style the present motion; because they prudently saw, that the existence and limited continuance of the trade involved such a mass of complicated interests of mortgages, &c. &c. The honourable gentleman who brought forward his motion could not be ig-

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norant of the correspondence which had taken place between the islands and the secretary of state; by which it appeared, that they all, except Barbadoes and Jamaica, had acquiesced in the proposals that had been made to them, and assured that house, that they considered themselves happy by discovering and adopting the means that might lead to a final abolition. This was evident from the answers of the island of St. Vincent's and Tobago to the duke of Portland, which showed they had under consideration the best measures for limiting the causes that increase the trade, and which might gradually lead to its total abolition. The Royal Gazette of Jamaica, which he had just seen, mentioned that similar measures were under consideration, and that a tax of 10*l.* was to be levied for all slaves above a certain age, to prevent the hardships of slavery from being doubled on the old. It had been alleged that the penalty of 50*l.* had not been inflicted on some masters who had been convicted of having mutilated their slaves;—but it was well known, and it was a custom that prevailed in every civilised country, that judges were invested with a discretionary power to mitigate punishment as the nature of circumstances might suggest and require. But the cases alluded to happened before the passing of the act, by virtue of which the penalty of 50*l.* was to be inflicted; and how could the law have been violated before it had received existence? However fines of 50*l.* and 100*l.* had been imposed before the act passed, which proved at least an existing disposition to discountenance and punish the cruelties that were so industriously exaggerated. With respect to the instance of the

child whose mouth was said to be cut from ear to ear, it was well known to be an act of insanity, and proved to be such in a court of law. Mr. Edwards next took occasion to mention the conduct of the king of Cassin, who, in spite of every entreaty, had a number of prisoners, whom he had taken in battle, ordered into his presence, and all their throats to be cut. Instances of this kind might be collected from Mr. M. Parke's Journal, on which Mr. Edwards bestowed the highest encomiums, and from which he inferred that the disposition of the natives, and not the intrigues of the slave traders, was the real cause of the barbarities they exercised. He would ask the honourable gentleman whether it was better for the Africans to have their throats cut as he described, or to be sent to the West Indies? By bringing in this bill, the honourable gentleman would only teach the negroes that they were treated with injustice; and, by this lesson, would pretty plainly tell them to rise upon their masters and murder them. Mr. Edwards concluded by assuring the honourable gentleman, that if the West-India planters were doomed to fall, he should see they should not fall without a *struggle*.

Mr. Wilberforce said a few words in explanation, and observed that he had ample proofs in his possession with respect to the facts which he had adduced relative to the mutilating of the slaves. The honourable gentleman had insisted that the cases of cruelty which he had mentioned had not taken place after the act had passed, but long before the passing of it; in contradiction to which Mr. Wilberforce read the records of the council, and the words of the act itself, which fully established the fact. With respect to the master
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of a child cutting its mouth from ear to ear, it was equally easy to be substantiated; and as to the report of the master being deranged, no allegation of insanity had ever been brought against him; and even the jury who sat on his trial, proved that no such plea was ever set up in his defence.

Mr. B. Edwards acknowledged he had made a slight mistake as to the precise date of the act; but with respect to the master of the negro child, who he said was insane, it was notorious to all the country.

Mr. Canning said, if there ever hung any doubt or hesitation upon his mind with regard to the propriety of the vote which he should give on the present question, that doubt was completely done away by the speech of Mr. B. Edwards. The honourable gentleman had laid down two propositions which he Mr. Canning was very anxious should be minutely attended to; for, if there were any who entertained a doubt respecting the propriety of an immediate abolition of the slave trade, such would do well to consider, whether, by acceding to these propositions, they were not going to vote a complete perpetuity of that trade? These propositions held out to us, that as long as there was a market for slaves, there would be found buyers; and, that as long as Africa would furnish negroes, there would not be wanting other countries to purchase them. The specimens of cruelty to which the miserable Africans were exposed was, seemingly, in the opinion of the honourable gentleman, some apology for the continuance of the slave trade; and under this persuasion he put the question, whether they would not prefer being sent to the West

Indies, to having their throats cut at home? For his part, were the question put to him—whether he would finish his being in his native land, or be sent in slavery to the West Indies, where he might, at the cruel caprice of a tyrant master, be ignominiously maimed and miserably mangled? much rather he would say, “May I perish at home! than yield up my liberty and expose my person to such cruel and outrageous indignities.” The honourable gentleman proceeded to urge the necessity of continuing the slave trade as long as there remained uncultivated lands in our West-India islands, and the impropriety of discussing the question of the abolition of the slave trade until this object had been accomplished. Mr. Canning said he could not speak from local knowledge; but he understood, from good authority, that a third of the lands in the islands still remained uncultivated. On this he would only observe, that those who did not distinctly disclaim this ground, for supporting the further continuance of this trade, could never persuade him that they had ever been sincere in their wishes for its abolition.

Mr. Thornton rose and made some remarks upon Mr. Parke's Journal, from which Mr. Edwards had collected his information. He allowed Mr. Parke to be a gentleman of probity; but as Mr. Parke's route was by water, for many hundred miles up the great river Gambia, he had not perhaps been in a situation to make extensive observations and inquiries near the sea-coast, concerning the slave trade. Certain, however, it was, that no part of Mr. Parke's information could invalidate the positive evidence that had come from other quarters. Mr. Thornton

then read from governor Macaulay's Journal some extracts concerning the mode of procuring slaves in the Mandingo country, a part in which Mr. Edwards seemed to suppose that no enormities were practised, and proved that kidnapping was frequent; and, it was agreed upon between the slave traders and the kidnappers, that none of the natives round shall be admitted to a sight of the slaves, who were usually conveyed away by the craft in the night. Mr. Thornton proceeded to describe the sources of the slave trade in Africa, which he said were four, viz. wars, crimes, debts, and kidnapping. At Sierra Leone, there were abundant proofs, that wars were both fomented and prolonged by this traffic. It had been said by the honourable gentleman (Mr. Edwards), the abolition of the slave trade would cause many of the Africans to be butchered, because there would be no market for the prisoners of war; on the contrary, in that country it appeared that the slave trade was chargeable, not only with the wars themselves, but with the murder of these prisoners who were unfit for sale. With regard to slaves sold for alleged crimes, as far as he had learnt, of slaves sold from Sierra Leone, not one conviction was supported even by the semblance of justice. The pretended crimes were generally witchcraft and adultery. Somebody or other was accused of witchcraft on the death of almost every great man. The person accused was compelled to drink a poisonous draught, called red water; if he died, his relations were frequently seized and sold as slaves; if the wretch survived, he himself was sold for a slave—and there were not wanting instances of English slave-traders encourag-

ing this iniquitous kind of superstition. Mr. Thornton next made some remarks on the practice of seizing and selling debtors, &c. which he said necessarily led to kidnapping; since when any man was threatened, or actually seized for debt, he or his connexions were under the strongest temptation to go and kidnap some other person, in order to redeem him or those who were so threatened or seized. Mr. Thornton next touched on the various obstacles to civilisation which attended the slave trade; and concluded by making some observations on the duty of the British legislature to abolish such a traffic as he had described on the principles of morality, justice, and sound policy.

Mr. Sewell said a few words against the motion, and observed it would unsettle the legal tenures, by which the proprietors of West India estates held their possessions. He would ask, was the house prepared to take such a step without, at the same time, offering them adequate compensation? He objected also to the motion, as it went to counteract the address of last session, in which his Majesty was requested to recommend to the colonies to adopt such measures as seemed necessary to meliorate the condition of the slaves.

Colonel Gascoigne spoke against the motion, and said it called upon the house to rescind its former resolution, which was neither consistent nor prudent.

Mr. Buxton supported the motion, and said it could not be thought that the negroes in our colonies could be long continued in a state of slavery, when, at the same time, they saw those in our enemies' colonies emancipated.

Mr. Hobhouse remarked, that in
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the correspondence with the colonial assemblies, which had been laid before the house, he could not see any thing like a serious disposition to meet the wishes of the house. The governors of two of the islands had remained silent, and in some of the islands no measures had been taken, so that he thought little was to be expected from that quarter. Though all agreed that the traffic of slaves was cruel, yet he was sorry to see that this trade had lately been on the increase; and here he could not but advert to the encouragement given by his Majesty's proclamation, to export slaves from our islands to the Spanish colonies, even though in a state of war with them.

The chancellor of the exchequer said he could not let this opportunity pass of rectifying the misunderstanding which has gone abroad upon the subject, to which the honourable gentleman alluded in the conclusion of his speech. The fact however was, that a free port being established in one of the West-India islands, without any provision at all relative to negro slaves, it so happened that reference was made to an act of parliament, (and he was sorry to say such a practice should have received the sanction of the legislature), in which slaves were enumerated among a variety of articles of commerce: it being however represented, instructions were immediately sent out, directing that slaves should not be included as articles of commerce.—This was the simple state of the case.

The chancellor then contended for the immediate abolition of the slave trade, even for the safety of the West-India islands. Some had contended he said for its farther continuance upon the ground, that

it was necessary for the interest of the islands: this at best was but doubtful; however, the balance seemed to incline the other way; and now the necessity of the immediate abolition was pressed for the salvation of those very islands, which it was argued such a measure would destroy. The contemplation of future advantages sometimes makes men blind to present dangers: for some distant improvements, the gentlemen on the other side overlooked their real interests; and to favour the false calculation on which this principle proceeded, they would have us not only overlook that very interest which, whether they see it or not, it was our business to guard. We were told to postpone the consideration of the abolition till some future period; but we hear of no specific time fixed at which the subject may be resumed. The honourable gentleman (M. B. Edwards) contended that all the waste land in the West-India islands must previously be cultivated. Upon this point it was impossible to comment in more appropriate language than was used by his honourable friend (Mr. Canning). From his not having documents before him, there was one point which he did not explain so fully as he (Mr. Pitt) could have wished to the house. It appeared, from a statement which he held in his hand, that the quantity of uncultivated land in the island of Jamaica was about two-thirds more than that already in cultivation. It appeared that for this 250,000 negroes were required. To suffice for the cultivation of other parts, the complete number of 600,000 more at the same time would be necessary. To procure this supply then, it would be necessary to import not merely this

number, but to import, with all the frightful waste of mortality with which this importation is attended, till the full number should be completed. From a comparison of the importation necessary to make out 250,000 employed in the present cultivation of this island, and taking into view the increased ratio of mortality, in proportion to the number required, in order to keep 600,000 negroes living at the same time, an importation of between 11 and 12,000 was necessary. We know that in the last hundred years the cultivation had been going on, till the number of negroes amounted in the island of Jamaica to 250,000. Upon the calculation, that with 600,000 negroes a corresponding length of time would be necessary for the cultivation of the remaining two-thirds supposed capable of cultivation, the period, of the final abolition, upon the honourable gentleman's plan, would be protracted for no less than 240 years. If this was to be the rule by which the abolition of this horrible traffic was to be determined, he could not but understand it as a declaration that it was to be perpetual. It had been said, that as this traffic was encouraged by the legislature, the abolition would be unjust toward those who had acted upon the faith of the existing laws. —It was well answered, that the legislature often bestowed encouragement upon branches of commerce, which, in different circumstances, it was prudent to withdraw. After commenting upon the subject, he contended that no partial inconvenience ought to weigh against the indisputed principle of justice, and against the safety of the islands themselves.

Sir W. Young spoke against the motion, and said gentlemen were

not aware how difficult the situation was of the colonial assemblies with regard to the subject referred to their regulation. It was the prevalent opinion in the islands, that the emancipation of the negroes and the abolition of the slave trade would go together. He wished the house to reflect on the calamities that might happen, such as war, conflagration, disease, &c. to destroy the population of negroes belonging to an estate, without any remedy, if fresh importations were prohibited; and thus a fatal blow might be given to the property of the West-India planters, whilst that gradual system of meliorating their condition, which was pursuing in the islands by the colonial assemblies, would have quite a different effect. He said he had been told by Mr. Cooper, who was a prisoner at Guadaloupe, that when the negroes were emancipated, and told they must be soldiers, and give their labour to the state, many of them refused emancipation on such conditions. He concluded by saying, that he thought the British legislature ought to wait a few years, in order to see whether the measures now adopting in the West-India islands produced the desired effect.

Mr. W. Smith said, that the West-India planters had sufficient warning of the abolition of the slave trade, from the year of 1792 to the first of January 1796, when it was determined by a majority in favour of a gradual abolition. Much stress had been laid, he said, upon the arguments of its being the interest of the planter to render the condition of the slaves as comfortable as possible, and two colonial gentlemen had deposed to that effect; however, this was contradicted by the resolutions of the assembly

assembly of St. Christopher's: by which it appeared, that too little attention was paid either to the food or clothing of these unhappy creatures. He contended that the shocking accounts given of those parts of Africa, where the traffic prevailed, were strictly true, and not even contradicted by the traveller Mr. Parke. Therefore he thought it was incumbent on the house to do their duty by abolishing the trade, and not content themselves with paltry meliorations, by countenancing a system too execrable for the powers of human language to describe.

Mr. Ellis thought there was too much precipitation in bringing on the question. Gentlemen should have waited until the legislatures of the islands assembled, when their intentions respecting the business could be ascertained.

Mr. Fox (who attended for this evening at the sollicitation of the friends of abolition) rose and said, after the repeated discussions which this subject had undergone, he did not wish to detain the house long with a tedious inquiry into the principles by which the question ought to be decided. The gentlemen who were against the motion are extremely anxious to have it understood that there was but one opinion of the injustice and immorality of the slave trade; the only difference was, what is the best mode to abandon it? To me (said Mr. Fox) it is a matter of shame and of lamentation that the country should be so degenerate from every sense of virtue, so sunk in hypocrisy, that however convinced of the enormity of the wickedness, we have not yet abandoned that course which we so unanimously condemn. The British parliament has been acquainted with the guilt

and the reproach with which the nation has been loaded; not two opinions exist upon the subject; and yet not a single step has been taken, till last year, to remove the cause. Those gentlemen who oppose the motion say, we are told that the savage nations go to war with each other; and, that as their prisoners are brought to market, it would be inhumanity not to purchase; and, as the mischief is done, why should not we derive some advantage from it? If a passenger is to be robbed, why may not we be the first to plunder him? Such are the arguments by which one of the greatest wickednesses that ever disgraced a nation is palliated. We are asked, is it not better to send them to the West Indies, than continue in Africa to have their throats cut? Interest, they say, is sufficient to induce kindness. We know (continues Mr. Fox), that such is the nature of man, that the idea of possessing an unlimited authority, so far from inspiring tenderness, produces contempt of the object as worthless. An honourable gentleman tells us, that we ought not to be precipitate, that we ought not to be violent, and that we ought to prefer measures of conciliation to measures of severity. Gracious God! what severity are we about to commit? Are we to suspend the trade for two or three years, till you see whether an act of parliament be necessary to abolish it, or will you trust to the regulation in the West Indies? Mr. Fox said he listened with great attention to what fell from the minister in the debate; and contended that it was impossible to answer the arguments he had urged in favour of the motion. "He told you (said Mr. Fox) the safety of the West-India islands depended on your adoption of the

measure." He (Mr. Fox) was not often in the habit of paying implicit deference to his assertions; but on this occasion he could have no doubt of the truth of what he said. After passing several encomiums on the chancellor of the exchequer for his eloquence in support of the motion, he proceeded by saying, what should he think of those who had acknowledged the injustice and inhumanity of this trade, but who nevertheless would vote against the motion, rather than make a sacrifice of their interests? Mr. Fox remarked, that if he asked those gentlemen who were against the motion, when they would abolish the slave trade? they would answer, when the islands are cultivated. None of these gentlemen agreed in any thing like a definitive answer; but each had an answer of his own, and each tending to the same point, viz. to oppose the abolition of the slave trade for ever. What is the nature of the bill proposed to be brought in? Why, in its nature it must be a measure calculated to give them notice when the trade shall be abolished; for the motion is, "That you do now resolve yourselves into a committee to consider of a motion, that the slave trade be abolished at a time to be limited." What time do these gentlemen require? Why, till all these objections to the abolition be done away. Mr. Fox observed, if notice be the object, this motion was the object, this motion was peculiarly adapted to that purpose; and should the house give leave to bring in the proposed bill, he should, when the blank came to be filled up in the committee, most certainly vote for the direct and immediate abolition of this trade; being mindful of this ground, that the house was bound

to abolish a trade, which they had declared to be a trade of injustice and immorality; being mindful also that the minister had declared that the safety of the islands depended upon it. Mr. Fox said he had now delivered his opinion upon this subject, though he was not sanguine in hopes of success. With regard to what had been said to night, viz. that individuals might have been cruel, and that we ought not to judge of the slave trade from the possibility of some persons having misconducted themselves in it—it man had not been cruel, slavery would never have been complained of in this world; indeed if man were not cruel, slavery would not exist.

The secretary at war said he should have not been induced to trouble the house this night, had it not been for some of the observations of the right honourable gentleman who had just sat down. He agreed with him, however, in some of his opinions, although he could not agree with him in the reasons which he assigned for them. He observed, that he had not the least hesitation in declaring, that if the question were now, whether the slave trade should be immediately abolished, or be continued until all the lands in the West Indies should be cultivated? his alternative would be that of voting for the abolition: but, whether he should vote for the motion now before the house, or leave it to the legislatures of the islands? to whom by the last address of the house it seemed to have been entrusted, was a different question; and he conceived that leaving it to their care was the best mode that could be adopted. Much had been said upon the interior situation of Africa, and the horrors of the slave trade,
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and the depravity which must necessarily attend it; these were points which admitted of no dispute: but the right honourable gentleman who spoke last asked a very important question: "Are you, after having acknowledged the injustice and inhumanity of the trade, to agree to its continuance?" which he followed up by asking,—"Are you to say, I will rob, because another man will rob?" Whatever may be the soundness of the right honourable gentleman's judgment, the instance did not appear applicable to the measure before the house. He allowed that inasmuch as example operated, each person concerned in the trade must incur some censure.

The right honourable gentleman who spoke last stated, that this house, by continuing the slave trade, would be guilty of a breach of duty. Whether it would be a breach of duty, or not? he would take it upon him to say was the whole question. The point then would be, whether by abolishing the trade now, we were likely to create a greater evil than that which we would willingly remove? because our interest is not any consideration at all with us, except in a comparative sense; and that includes not only the safety of the whole of our islands, but also the happiness of the very people who now endure the hardships of slavery in the West Indies. Gentlemen may ask, why do you not fix the period beyond which you will not allow the traffic to continue? He might be told that he is acting inconsistently with his former principles, because he agreed to the address, considering it as a notice to the planters to diminish the importation of negroes; to which he should answer, that if you consider

the immediate abolition of the trade as a punishment upon those who were interested in its continuance, the reasoning is correct; but if otherwise, the reasoning is inconclusive. Those who wish for the abolition of the slave trade may have very good wishes, but he did not know that their wishes would have the effect which they expected. If the planters go on in a system of ameliorating the condition of the negroes, that would of itself have a good effect. This was the view he had of the question, which he thought it his duty to state to the house, although he should have forbore but for the warmth of the right honourable gentleman who spoke last, whose erroneous reasoning in some parts of his speech he could easily excuse on some occasions, as he could admire the force of his arguments on others.

Mr. Barham spoke against the motion: he thought such motions had a tendency to spur on, instead of discouraging, the traffic. He said he was not a very considerable proprietor; but as far as he was interested, he was ready to forego any share of compensation for himself; but neither himself nor any other person had a right to give away the property of others. Much had been urged to that house about abolishing the trade; but he wished gentlemen to put to themselves one question. The question was, whether the House of Commons had the power to put an end to the slave trade without the consent of the colonial assemblies?

The chancellor of the exchequer made a short reply relative to compensation, which he said related solely to lands, under certain circumstances, which were derived from the crown, in those islands,

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for valuable considerations. In those cases, and where the conditions stipulated for were faithfully performed by the granters—he thought it fair that certain proportionate compensation should be allowed.

The question then being loudly called for, the house divided, when there appeared—For the motion, 83—Against it, 87—Majority, 4.

As parliament has not thought proper to enforce their own resolution, that the slave trade should be abolished in the year 1796, it became necessary to renew, for a limited time, the slave trade-carrying bill. On this subject, however, nothing interesting occurred till the 4th of May, when sir William Dolben moved, that the house resolve itself into a committee on the bill for regulating the quantity of the shipping employed in carrying slaves.

Mr. William Smith proposed a clause for making the cubical contents between decks the criterion of the fitness of ships, instead of their extent of tonnage.

Colonel Porter observed, that the attendance was too thin for a subject of this importance, there being only thirty three members. It was, consequently, ordered to be again considered on Thursday next.

On Thursday, 10th May, therefore, sir William Dolben moved that the house resolve itself in a committee, to consider further of the slave carrying bill.

The house resolved itself accordingly into a committee.

Mr. William Smith proposed a clause for increasing the height of ships between decks, which should not be less, he said, than five feet perpendicular.

General Tarleton opposed the clause, as there were no arguments adduced to prove its necessity. The

mortality he contended was not near so great as on board the ships employed as transports for the troops to the West Indies.

Sir William Young supported the clause.

Mr. Sewell opposed the clause; and, if it should be negatived, he said he would bring forward a clause proposing a certain scale in slave-carrying ships, to regulate their depth; those of 150 tons and under should have 4 feet 4 inches depth; those of 200, 4 feet 6; of 250 tons, 4 feet 10; those above 250, 5 feet 2; and those of 300 tons and upwards, 5 feet 8.

Colonel Gascoigne and Mr. Sewell opposed the clause; Mr. Smith and Mr. Vanfittart supported it; when the house divided. Ayes 34, Noes 6.

Mr. William Smith next proposed a clause for regulating the superficial space, which he estimated for each slave at 8 feet.

This clause was opposed by colonel Gascoigne, Mr. Sewell, and general Tarleton. After which the house divided. Ayes 34, Noes 5.

The other clauses were agreed to, and the report ordered to be received on Monday. Adjourned.

On the following Monday, sir William Dolben brought up the report of the committee on the slave-carrying bill.

Colonel Gascoigne presented a petition from the merchants of Liverpool, and other great places of trade, stating objections against many of the clauses that were introduced into the bill. The petitioners prayed that they might be heard at the bar of the house against the bill. He intended, after the petition was read, to move that the report be taken into consideration that day se'nnight.

Mr. William Smith said, that having

having heard no reason for hearing counsel against this bill, except that the parties interested in the trade wished it, and knowing that the statement made in behalf of the petitioners was a misrepresentation of facts, he therefore should move that the report be read immediately. The further consideration of the report, however, was deferred to Wednesday, when counsel was ordered to be heard for the petitioners.

On the 21st of May, counsel was called in behalf of the merchants of London, Bristol, and Liverpool, relative to some clauses introduced into the slave-carrying bill.

Mr. Law, having proceeded for a few minutes at the bar for the petitioners,

Colonel Gascoigne desired that counsel should withdraw; which

being complied with, he desired the house to be counted; which being done, there appeared only thirty-two members. An adjournment took place of course, and the question was afterwards adjourned for some months.

Mr. R. Thornton wished to defer the consideration of the slave-restraining bill, on account of the advanced period of the session, till the following year; when he moved that the bill be deferred to that day two months.

Mr. Wilberforce concurred, and wished that it might be discussed in a full house.

Col. Tarleton said a few words.

After which the motion was put and carried; and thus ended the proceedings of this session on a question of the utmost magnitude and importance to the interests of justice and humanity.

CHAP. V.

Debate concerning the Office of third Secretary of State—Mr. Tierney's Motion on that Subject negatived. Motion by the Duke of Bedford, in the House of Lords, for the Dismissal of his Majesty's Ministers—Negatived. Bill respecting Newspapers.

AMONG the lesser debates which were agitated in the British legislature during this session, we may reckon an attempt made by Mr. Tierney to disqualify Mr. Dundas from a seat in the house of commons, upon the plea that the office which he held as secretary of state was contrary not only to the spirit, but to the letter of Mr. Burke's famous bill in 1783, for retrenching the public expenses, and diminishing the influence of the crown.

On the 3d of November, Mr. Tierney gave notice of a motion

he intended to make. It had been stated, he said, on a former occasion, that Mr. Dundas ought to vacate his seat in consequence of being appointed third secretary of state, and it had been answered, that the duke of Portland held that office himself. From the report of the secret committee, however, it now appeared, that it was Mr. Dundas who held this office, and Mr. Tierney said, he should submit the subject to the consideration of the house on the following Monday.

On Monday the 7th, when Mr. Hobart

Hobart brought up the report of the committee of supply, which was read a first and second time, on the speaker putting the question, That the resolution contained in it be agreed to? Mr. Long proposed, that it should be expressed *nemine contradicente*; to which Mr. Tierney strenuously objected, declaring, that whilst he had a voice it should not be allowed to pass so. Were it a matter of mere form, and *this* the usual way of passing the resolution, he should not object to it; but he was determined to give his negative, not only in this instance, but to every other act of the present administration. He assured the house he had a general retainer for the whole session.

Mr. Hobhouse moved to have laid before the house a variety of papers, some respecting the loan granted to his Imperial majesty, and guarantied by this country, which were ordered accordingly.

Mr. Tierney being now called upon by the speaker, rose, and said, he should state the reasons why Mr. Dundas ought not to hold a seat in the house: it was not from personal dislike, or private animosity; but the transaction of which he complained was a corrupt job—a job not avowed but detected, and never would have been brought to light if it could have been kept in concealment, and which appeared at last only by the labours of the committee, to whose reports he should refer for evidence of the facts on which he grounded the charge. In that report it was completely deciphered; and when that should be substantiated, it would become matter of deliberation and opinion, whether it was not aggravation of the offence, that Mr. Dundas, after having been reminded of the doubts that arose, and

thereby supplied with materials to judge of the law, and correct his error, had yet presumed, after such warning, and with the letter of the law before his eyes, to hold his seat in the house? Many of the gentlemen who now held their seats were members of parliament in the year 1782, when Mr. Burke made a speech deserving much applause, on bringing in a bill for introducing a system of economy in the public administration, and for abolishing all useless places. This great man had a more extensive view than merely to diminish the public expenditure; namely, to preserve the independence of parliament. In this speech, Mr. Burke asserted, that the office of third secretary of state was an office perfectly unnecessary, and instituted for no other purpose than that of creating new patronage for the crown. Taking this as the principle upon which the abolition of that office was then grounded, nothing could be pleaded in justification of its revival but the most urgent necessity.

Mr. Tierney said, he would undertake to prove that this office had been revived; and it was incumbent on his majesty's ministers to show the house those circumstances which made it necessary. He reverted to Mr. Burke's statement, that lord Suffolk and lord Weymouth, being the two principal secretaries, and the former being "though not dead to nature, dead to the public," the whole business devolved upon the latter, and for more than a year after no new secretary was appointed; from whence it was argued, that if lord Weymouth was able to do the business of himself and of lord Suffolk, two secretaries could do the business of three. In the year

1783, the object of Mr. Burke was effected. Mr. Tierney then called the attention of the house to the present moment. A third secretary of state had been appointed since that time with a new establishment of 13,000*l.* a year. When in the year 1768, the office abolished by Mr. Burke's bill was established, the pretext was, the increase of business on the continent of America; at that time, however, three secretaries were at least sufficient; but having contrived to lose the American colonies which furnished the pretext, ministers could not very well insist on the continuance of the office, nor deny that there was no occasion for more than two; who went under the name of secretaries for the northern and southern departments. In the year 1786, a committee was appointed to report on the nature of the offices of government, and the amount of their salaries; in that report the two secretaries were stated at salaries of 6000*l.* each: now if the labour became so extremely arduous to ministers, as to justify an additional office, would they not have called for more, rather than less, than the stated salary? But so far was this from being the case, the honourable gentleman did not feel that he had any claim, diminishing himself the allowance of the report of 1786; fixing his salary at 4500*l.* a year, instead of 6000*l.* and instead of sinking under the business, he was able to carry a little more, taking upon himself the office of president of the board of control, without fee or reward additional; nor was any complaint heard of these offices being too laborious.

By the war in 1793 the business was considerably increased; but Mr. Dundas never looked for a

third secretary, but conducted the whole with much credit to himself for a year and a half, and in bringing in his India bill took 6000*l.* a year as president of the board of control, assuming the whole weight of that arduous employment: but this was not all; with the home department he took that of the war, so far was he from considering a third secretary needful. Under these circumstances then, what was it which created the necessity? It could not be that which was made the pretext for it in 1768, for the colonies were lost: neither could it be inability, because it appeared that the business had been accomplished, with dispatch, by two.

Mr. Tierney professed himself at a loss to imagine, why in 1794 there should be a new division of the business; and instead of the old establishment of the two secretaries and offices, at an expense of 29,000*l.* there should be three, at an expense of 40,000*l.* He knew that the accumulation of the affairs of war with those of the other departments of state rendered an enlargement necessary, and pointed out the expediency of a separate establishment for war. The first clerk of that office was the only person examined touching that point before the committee; but instead of saying any thing to justify that conclusion, which he said tended to prove, that with the help of four additional clerks they might go on as well as ever. But this mode would not answer the purpose of ministers: no; an increase of the patronage of the crown was their object, and a new establishment, with enormous additional salaries, must effect their purposes. When the discovery was made of the necessity of a new establishment, many dif-

difficulties occurred respecting the arrangement. Mr. Pitt, who is so fond of "mutual compensation" in all negotiations, probably interfered, and made it the basis of treaty; and hence might have arisen "reciprocal facilities." It was only saying, I am secretary at war, and you are war secretary, and the difficulty was at an end; and on that day started out an arrangement, giving to Mr. Dundas the office of secretary of the war department, with an enormous establishment. Mr. Tierney professed himself at an utter loss to comprehend how such a palpable job could be defended, or in what manner ministers could justify the creating such an office. The present commander in chief was allowed to be most accurate, active, and industrious; nor did he mean disrespect to lord Amherst, when he attributed wholly to age his insufficiency. Lord Cornwallis had made no improvements in the ordnance department; and yet, with these advantages, the office of secretary of the war department was thought necessary for the right honourable gentleman!

It was not so much as stated that the duke of Portland could not do the duty of both; and his grace's department, instead of being reduced, had four clerks added to it. One, a precis, that is to say, an abridger; another, a law clerk, which had been abolished in 1774, and now revived; a third, a clerk for felons and convicts; and the fourth, a gentleman who left his profession (Mr. Baldwin), and was so good as to give his opinion when a case is sent with the usual compliment (the fee) marked on the back of it. Besides which, there was an active magistrate employed, who transacted

the office business with the various magistrates, and took the whole weight of that trouble off his grace's shoulders.

But to come to the other point, the illegality of the office; Mr. Burke's bill had provided that the office of the "*third secretary of state, or secretary for the colonies* (as it was then called) *should be abolished, and that two only should remain, those for the northern and southern departments; and that if any office of the same name, nature, or description, should thereafter be established, the same should be taken as a new office.*" Could any terms (he said) be found to comprehend a more large, distinct, and plain explanation of the intent of that provision?

Lord George Germaine, who held the office of third secretary, was more cautious than the honourable gentleman, for he never gave any specific name to the office he held, but held it generally by the title of "one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state." And Mr. Burke was driven thereby to state it so specially as he had done, that was to say, there should be only two, and if a third were made of the same nature with that abolished, the person should be incapable to sit in the house of commons. He would undertake to prove, that the office held by Mr. Dundas was of the same description, and, though not of the same name, for the same purposes. Let the report be examined, and the three distinct officers would be distinctly recognised by the authenticated signatures of the respective secretaries. In appendix B. 1. they will meet the signature Portland as principal secretary; in B. 2. lord Grenville, principal secretary; and then will come to Henry Dundas, principal war

war secretary! Mr. Tierney affirmed, he had made out satisfactorily that no necessity for creating this office had been proved; and that if it had been proved, still under the law it was impossible that the honourable gentleman could retain his seat. He was not actuated (he solemnly declared) by any desire to throw difficulties in the way of public proceedings, but by an anxious wish to vindicate the honour of the house, and to prevail on them to shew their resolution to preserve inviolate the law, and particularly as the king's speech recommended to them so strongly to enforce obedience to the laws. He requested that the act to which he alluded should be read, and, after it had been read, moved the following resolution:

"That it was the opinion of that house, that the office of secretary of state for the war department was in addition to the office of secretary of state for foreign affairs and for the home department; and that the honourable Henry Dundas, having accepted of the office of secretary for the war department, was disqualified from sitting in parliament, &c."

Mr. secretary Dundas said, that Mr. Tierney had so particularly alluded to him in the manner in which he had introduced the present motion, that he could not better refute the objections which had been stated, or demonstrate the impropriety of the measure proposed, than by giving an accurate statement of the circumstances to which he had directed the attention of the house. In the year 1791 his majesty called upon him to undertake the office for the war department: at that period, the duty attached to the situation comprehended the internal correspondence with the dif-

ferent parts of the country, with Ireland, with the colonies, and in general every thing relative to the executive administration. When the war broke out, the military correspondence was likewise conducted by him. He said he should not enter into the consideration, whether the place of third secretary of state was rightly abolished, or rightly restored? but he could not avoid embracing this opportunity of stating distinctly the business of the office which was now under discussion, and submitting it to any reasonable man's opinion, whether it was not more than would be proper to commit to any individual, whatever might be his talents or his assiduity? The increase of employment arising out of the war, the new and strange scenes which had been acted in various parts of the country, the frantic and dangerous designs which had been prosecuted with such perseverance, to disturb the public tranquillity, and overthrow our happy constitution, had required an additional portion of vigilance, and additional means of carrying on the affairs of state with undivided attention.

The only question, however, for the deliberation of the house was, whether he was a third secretary of state in the terms of the act? and in answer to Mr. Tierney's arguments, he should boldly state the fact.

In the year 1791, Mr. Dundas said, he received the seals of the home department from his majesty, and at the same time was custodian of those which had belonged to lord George Germaine. A new arrangement having taken place, he carried the seals of which he had been the custodian to his majesty, who delivered them to the duke

duke of Portland. He was then ordered by his majesty to continue the *military correspondence*, and to conduct the business of secretary of state so far as related to that object. How, then, could he be considered as third secretary of state? If two known and established secretaries existed, and another was *added*, in what manner could it be proved that the person who discharged one of these offices was either a new or a third secretary, when none of the business which belonged to that office abolished by Mr. Burke's bill was attached to the office which he held?—it was an employment quite distinct from that which the bill deemed unnecessary, and was posterior to it. The military branch, and the matters connected with it, were carried on in his department: but this did not serve as proof that he, who performed that duty before, must be the new secretary now, or that he came under the incapacities which the bill enacted. He received no new patent from his majesty, no increased salary; the emoluments were neither augmented nor diminished, they remained precisely as they did before the new arrangement took place. He was then, and continued still, one of the principal secretaries of state, whilst there were three to whom this character belonged, without its being at all specified with what particular department they were entrusted.

But the spirit and object of the bill ought also to be considered. It was intended to guard against the increase of public offices in so far as those who occupied them were, or were not, to be members of the house: but, because it suited the state of the civil list at the period when it was passed, did it fol-

low that it must be applicable to the present times? It did not enact that a third secretary should not be appointed; but that he should not be a member of the house. Before any change took place he had sat in it, and now claimed the right both on his own account and from a regard for the privileges of his constituents to exercise his legislative capacity. There had been no change in his situation since 1791; but the duty which he had performed was now executed by the duke of Portland. Upon what ground, then, had he forfeited his seat? No incapacity arose from the circumstances to which the attention of the house was called. The question had been agitated before by an honourable friend of his, with equal capacity, and with no less skill than Mr. Tierney possessed, and the opinion of the house had been pronounced upon it. He would, therefore, add no more than his negative upon the motion.

Mr. Martin said, that whether the present office violated the letter of Mr. Burke's bill, or not, the spirit of it had been disregarded; its object was to guard against the influence of the crown, and to secure the independence of parliament, which, by the proceeding in question, would be defeated.

Mr. Tierney again rose, and lamented that a subject on which he might have expected that the crown lawyers would have favoured the house with their lights; and that a question, which turned upon the interpretation of an act of parliament, and required legal knowledge, should devolve wholly upon himself. Even the right honourable gentleman (Mr. Pitt), he said, who was not backward to speak, seemed to decline. He too was implicated

in one of the most wanton, unnecessary, insulting jobs, by which the country had ever been disgraced. Mr. Dundas had affirmed, that he was not third secretary of state, because he was secretary of state before! If it were true that he had only a part of the duty, he was, in fact, no more than an officer of the duke of Portland, and disqualified equally to sit in parliament, as coming under the exceptions of the 15th of Geo. II. By that act, one under secretary in each department, and no more, was allowed to sit in parliament. Mr. Dundas did not act in that character for the home department. What difference, then, existed between him and any other person out of the duke's office? But the subject had formally been discussed: now, however, circumstances were altered, and the question came forward in a different point of view. Here the job, which before was imperfectly known, is *detected*; it was not then known that he held the office which was now distinguished by the title of the war department, hitherto uncreated. As to the charge of holding the third office, an old jest was again repeated; and we were asked, whether those who were in, or he who joined, was to be deemed *new* secretary? Doubtless his majesty might divide his office into as many parts as he pleased, if he did not call upon the house for the payment of those who were employed. He could make placemen, but not members of parliament; nor by extending the number of principal secretaries increase that of under secretaries, qualified to sit in the house of commons. By the new arrangement, two members were made. It was affirmed, indeed, that he took no salary; but others in his situation in future might differ from

him. The statute of queen Anne, and the bill of Mr. Burke, created an incapacity: no matter by what motive he may be actuated, the incapacity is legally declared. It was against the admission of the principle (Mr. Tierney said) that he contended: it was to prove what was meant by the constitution; to enforce *obedience* to the laws, that he urged the question: Would the people be satisfied, when the debate went abroad, with the juggle with which his serious charge had been answered? When it had been proved by the evidence of a select committee, and demonstrated by an act of parliament, that a gentleman sat in that house, who was *disqualified by law*? Would it content them to say, it was not proved whether he were first, second, or third secretary? Would it convince the public, that the office had not been created to extend the influence of the crown, and to corrupt the independence of parliament? At a moment so perilous as the present, it ought to be their business not to outrage, but conciliate the opinion of the people; nor, by a quibble, to evade the execution of law. As to himself, he was not inclined to despond; he believed that the energy of the country was great, and its resources extensive; but they were not the resources of abundance: they could only be called forth by a house of commons possessing the confidence of the nation. If that house evinced by their conduct that they were more disposed to curry favour with the king, to employ a *vigour beyond the law against the people, and less than the law in the vindication of their rights*, they might, indeed, vote grants, but they would be barren; impose taxes, but they would be unproductive. It was only by en-

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forcing the laws equally against high and low, rich and poor, that we should find in the people energies inexhaustible, and resources without end.

The honourable gentleman, however, had said, "prove me to be third secretary of state; I went with the seals, and delivered them to the duke of Portland." Thus he endeavoured to escape by a juggle, and showed himself and his grace so close together, that it was impossible to discover which had the trust. The facts, however, were founded on no quibble. The two departments for home and foreign affairs were known. Since 1794, there had been a secretary for the war department; and the whole matter was, whether Mr. Dundas, or the duke of Portland was the new secretary? and because the duke came last into office, it was to be inferred, forsooth, that it was his grace.

But the law does not ask, who is the officer? it looks at the office: and if the new officer be found in the old department, and the former secretary in an office unknown, it cannot be difficult to decide which of them was to be held as the *new* secretary.

Mr. Pitt said, that the office of secretary of state, in the legal sense, depended upon the grant and delivering of the seals; there was no limitation of their numbers; they had varied in different periods of history, and each became a legal organ to countersign any act of state, and was placed afterwards in that department of business which his majesty, in his wisdom, thought fit to allot him.

The language of the report, and that of the clerks, who gave their evidence before the committee, had no reference whatever to the real

and legal definition of the office. Mr. Dundas had no new grant since the year 1791. He had now the old seals and the old grant. According, then, to the spirit of the act of the 6th of queen Anne, he had not forfeited his right to sit in the house; nor would it be easy to persuade them, that holding the old grant and the old seal constitute a new secretary, merely because he happened to have less duty now in the office than in the year 1791: and after this he left the question to be decided on which side the quibble lay. But after all, what was the spirit of Mr. Burke's bill? It was not a bill to restrain the creation of offices generally; not to prevent his majesty even from having a third secretary of state by name; but it stated, that if a third secretary be added, he should not sit in the house of commons. Now who was the person who was the third secretary? A member of the house of lords! Gentlemen might say, that the act of parliament to which he alluded was passed to prevent his majesty's influence being extended in the council of the nation; and that the third secretary of state ought to have no seat in the house of lords, any more than of commons: to which he replied, that we must observe the law as it *was*, not as some people thought it ought to be.

Mr. Tierney still asserted he was justified in the statement he had made; and if his language had appeared harsh, it arose out of the subject. He had called it a job, and he thought so still. The office of secretary of the war department existed since the 11th of July, 1794, and the disclosure was made by the committee to which he referred.

Mr. Burdon rose, he said, to justify the proceedings of the committee
of

of finance, of which he was a member, and upon which Mr. Tierney had built the principal arguments of his speech. The appointments under discussion were viewed by that committee only in the general light of state offices, nor was there ever any thing hinted respecting a legal view of the situations in which the secretaries were placed. Nothing could, therefore, be deduced from their reports to disentangle the litigated point, or prove that a new or a third secretary, and he gave his vote against the present motion on the same principle which directed his conduct in the committee of finance.

Sir William Geary gave it as his opinion, that it was evident, from the report of the secret committee, that there existed three appointments to the offices of secretary of state; and that these appointments were acknowledged under the absolute signature of the persons who held them. At the head of the war department appeared Mr. Dundas; and if he appeared in this new department he must naturally be regarded as the new secretary: now he did preside in this new office, and, consequently, in point of fact and common sense, he must be considered as the new secretary of state. As to the transaction being denominated a job, it was not a question now before the house, though he would not hesitate to style it such if the place was proved to be unnecessary. In this light he viewed the matter, and his conscience directed him to vote against the motion.

Sir William Young said, that a parallel case to this under discussion had taken place with regard to a noble friend of his, who had passed from the home to the foreign department. When that noble lord

had been removed from one office of secretary of state to another, there certainly was no idea that this change should be regarded as a creation of a new office. In like manner Mr. Dundas had been removed, but this was not to be considered as such. He, therefore, should oppose the motion.

The house divided—Ayes 8, noes 139.

With the debate which has just been concluded we shall class another of a similar, but of a more general and extensive nature—a motion which was made in the house of lords for the dismissal of the whole of the ministry. On the 22d of March, the duke of Bedford rose, and addressed the house to the following effect:

It would not, he said, require much argument to prove that the present ministers had been supported in their career by the implicit confidence of the house: they had been uncontrolled by their interference, they had been strengthened by their concurrence, nor had they, at any time, been thwarted by an opposition from any quarter which could obstruct their pursuit of the contradictory system on which they acted, or impede its ultimate success. If ministers, then, having been invested with the extraordinary powers which they possessed, and enjoying the unlimited confidence reposed in them by parliament from the commencement of the war, notwithstanding all the means with which they were entrusted, had, by their incapacity and misconduct, reduced the country to the calamitous state in which it was at present, their dismissal was the only remedy for our distress.

Without entering into the causes of the war, his grace begged to remind the house, that, prior to its

commencement, ministers had been charged with pursuing a line of conduct which infallibly must lead to hostilities; and so it had proved. But his wish was to remove, not criminate them, as the situation of the times rendered such a measure but a secondary consideration; and the subject would be better suited to a moment of tranquillity, when the absence of danger would enable them more coolly to enter into the investigation of guilt. It was from a conviction that our only chance of safety depended on their removal, that he now earnestly called upon their lordships to support the motion; not doubting but, if he could authenticate his statement, they would feel themselves compelled, by a sense of duty, to vote in its favour.

With whatever sentiments ministers had been supposed to contemplate an approaching war, it must be recollected that its declaration, on the part of the French, excited their most lively joy. They concealed not their satisfaction, that the French had furnished a pretext for it; and the war was not considered as a matter of melancholy and regret, but of triumph and exultation. Those persons, however, who thought a rupture with France should be prevented, left no effort untried to put an end to the evils in which we were involved, and to retard their progress. Remonstrances were made against the measures of the ministry. Parliament was called upon to declare, that this country would not interfere in the internal affairs of France; and when the hostile views of ministers were less disguised, entreated to enter into no alliances with foreign powers, which would form an obstacle to peace, and embarrass its attainment.

To these remonstrances no answers were given. Parliament afterwards declared, that if Great Britain engaged in a war, it should merely be defensive, and entered upon for the sole purpose of protecting and fulfilling our treaties with our allies, and checking any views of aggrandisement which the French might have entertained, at the expense of other powers. To this no answer was made; but that, since we were embarked in the contest, England could only be safe by weakening France. Again, to remove all misunderstanding of the objects and the views entertained in the prosecution of the war, parliament was required to testify, that the war was undertaken, not for the purposes of aggrandisement, but on the most benevolent principles of general interest. When the French were defeated, and reduced within their own territories, ministers affirmed, that *this* was not the moment to come forward with offers of peace. When they were successful, it was said, that we ought to persevere, till their existing government was replaced by a better system; and that their prosperity was not the time for our reconciliation. Such was the language with which every attempt to oppose the progress of bloodshed was resisted! Ministers, indeed, had not then developed all their schemes, and avowed all their objects. They wished not to alarm the country with too extensive a plan of warfare, lest we should have been diverted from its prosecution, and inclined to peace. At this period, the debt incurred was seven millions; with an added annual charge upon the country of no more than 250,000*l*.

The next session of parliament opened with a speech from the throne,

throne, in which ministers (for the speech was ever to be considered that of the minister) expressed a different language. We then were told, that we were engaged in the contest, not merely for the defence of our allies, and the repelling aggression, but to resist the progress of anarchy, impiety, and irreligion, and that it was impossible to talk of peace till the monarchy of France was restored. Now it was that the most absurd plans were devised, and the most frantic projects conceived; and in the pride of momentary success, ministers hoped to rival the proudest of their predecessors in the proudest days England had ever seen. Infatuated men! they imagined that temples and trophies would be erected upon the mutilated carcases of their enemies.

In these wild and visionary expectations they were disappointed; but in their destructive career they were supported by this house! Inflamed with indignation (continued his grace) you too became unjust, and, as a learned prelate has recently observed, "assumed the right of that vengeance which belongeth not to man, but to the Deity alone." A few indeed there were, unblinded by this mistaken zeal; a few unawed by clamour, undaunted by prejudice and undisturbed by calumny, who, as ardent friends to their country, opposed the minister. They contended, that if our views were directed to the conquest of France, they were chimerical; if meant to sow dissention amongst them, vain: for they only confirmed the power and strengthened the hands of the existing rulers. At the close of the session the same efforts were renewed, but without effect. Resolutions were formed in the other house, to ascertain precisely the real object of the war:

ministers contended that it was impolitic to state their reasons at such a moment, and asked, whether we were to treat, in the hour of victory with jacobins? with men who had embued their hands in the blood of their sovereign, who called our king a tyrant, and our parliament usurpers! "No! let us die with arms in our hands!" was their boastful cry—"Never can we treat with jacobins!" But did they persevere in this high tone? did they discover a firmness in adversity corresponding to their presumption in success? Look at their conduct the ensuing year, and see how these pretensions were justified. The sessions closed; and if peace had then been obtained, we should not have experienced the financial difficulties under which we since had laboured, nor have to dread the danger which impended.

Next session the sentiments of the people had undergone a considerable change. The prospects held out to them had been disappointed, the appearance of a war of extermination now threatened them, when it was doubtful which party would be its victim. When the French were to be the objects, the idea was agreeable; but when it turned against ourselves, its aspect changed. Not merely out of doors, but in parliament itself this alteration had taken place. It was necessary therefore to use some management with those with whom it was not popular. The distraction of the French republic; the disorder and approaching ruin of her finances; the cause of religion and social order, were insisted upon. Still, however, the desire of peace gained ground.

In the house of commons, those who had uniformly exerted themselves for its restoration made new

attempts to pave the way for that object. Upon this occasion ministers moved an amendment, in which it was said that we were determined to persevere in the contest till such a government was established in France as might be able to maintain the accustomed relations of peace and amity. Not a word was added to explain when such a government was to be expected, or in what it would be allowed to consist. It was affirmed by the friends of peace, that it was necessary to abandon that system which led to extermination, and to treat at a period when, if unsuccessful, we should be able to continue the war with vigour. To this it was answered, Would we throw our country at the feet of France, and recognise their superiority? No—it was replied; but we had reason to distrust the capacity of those who had involved us in our present difficulties. Ministers, however, continued to exclaim, Would we treat with the republic? would we acknowledge that our king and parliament were unfit to govern us? would we surrender our West-India islands and our commercial advantages? They told us also, that the finances of the enemy were exhausted, and he was incapable of maintaining the contest. Amidst all these topics, however, their lofty tone was softened; they no longer said they were fighting to restore the ancient government of France: their spirit sunk as their difficulties increased, their concessions advanced in proportion as their embarrassments thickened; but it was no advantage to their country, it only produced disgrace, without promoting conciliation.

In the next speech from the throne, France was declared to have come to a crisis which might lead

to peace. Many doubted the propriety of the steps taken to effect it; many suspected they were not sincere; some advances to negotiation, however, were made by Mr. Wickham to Barthelemy, the French envoy at Basle. The success of that application was well known, and its object was strongly suspected to have been merely to satisfy the prevailing inclination of the people. The conduct of lord Malmesbury, in the first instance, proved also, that if ministers were sincere, they must have been the most incapable administration that ever existed. A minister was sent with power to conclude, and not to treat, except for the emperor; and that was without his authority! Vain attempts had been made to obtain those documents and papers, without which it was impossible to develop the true state of some very important points in the negotiation; and his grace confessed, that he was not able to form a correct opinion upon the subject. But as those documents were refused, he concluded that they contained nothing which could justify ministers in the demands of Belgium as a *sine qua non*. Notwithstanding the pretences upon which the war was said to be undertaken (as to give protection to the oppressed, to check the career of ambition, and to defend property), what were the terms on which we proposed to conclude a peace? All the greater powers were to be benefited at the expense of the smaller. Whilst Poland was allowed to be divided without a remonstrance, schemes of partition were devised by those who pretended to interfere for the advantage of the weak, and the interest of all parties. France was to have retained some of her conquests, the emperor to have received

crived compensation for his losses, and Great Britain to have taken the Dutch settlements in the east. Upon this occasion (as a *sine qua non*) Belgium was not to have remained with France. Lord Malmesbury's first negotiation was broken off upon this point, though it was the opinion of many (well calculated to judge of it) that it ought to have been ceded as the means of obtaining peace.

This surrender would have been yet more necessary had it been known that the bank was in danger of stopping payment; and what must have been the capacity of those ministers, who, being warned of the consequences, persisted in the measures!

The duke proceeded to point out the difference of our situation now, and five years ago: the country was obliged to pay interest for a debt of 160 millions, the most enormous that ever was incurred in any war. This was the sum which it was thought necessary to expend for the destruction of jacobins! And, after all, the jacobin rulers still existed in France, and possessed more honour than ever they did! Notwithstanding this debt, another was to be contracted: and an additional charge of nine millions and a half annually was to be laid on this country. A greater burden than what the whole interest of the loan amounted to at the end of the American war! Could no blame attach to the men who had squandered so profusely the resources of the nation without fruit or advantage?

The war began in conjunction with the greatest confederacy ever known in Europe, and we were now without a single ally but Portugal! we were reduced to a state of inert self defence; we had no prospect

to cheer our gloom, or compensate for our sacrifices; and our exertions under the present ministry were as hopeless as they were incalculable. Whilst this was our outward situation, there was nothing in our internal state to afford us consolation: whilst our burdens increased our privileges had been abridged; we now were living under laws which were hostile to the best principles our ancestors had laboured to establish. But there was another topic which this review suggested; this was the affairs of Ireland: did not the ministry of this country, by the system which they pursued, alienate the affections of the sister kingdom? His grace declared, that if he were to enter into the detail of the atrocities committed in Ireland, the picture would appal the stoutest hearts. What could be expected, indeed, if men, kept in strict discipline, were all at once allowed to give loose to their fury and their passions? Yet it was not to the military to whom he would impute the blame, but to those by whom their excesses had been permitted and encouraged. Certain it was that two distinct and opposite orders had been issued forth for regulating the conduct of the military: one by which they were restrained from acting without the magistracy, and the other by which they were allowed to act without them. These proceedings were sanctioned by government, and what would be the consequences? the loss of Ireland! A reform in parliament was absolutely necessary to check the influence of the crown, and the power of the aristocracy: to check that enormous influence which the minister had derived by the creation of peers, when peers were sent into the house by dozens.

(The duke was here called to

order by lord Fauconberg, who said he had never heard such language poured forth in that house upon the members of it.) His grace affirmed that he had uttered nothing injurious to the characters of those elevated to the peerage: they were men of talents, of consideration, and of property; but if all men of this description, or rather, of great landed property, were selected by the minister out of the house of commons, and sent up to that house, the independence of the commons must ultimately be affected. If no country gentlemen of wealth and consideration remained, the minister would acquire the command of every election, especially supported as they were by all the influence which the overgrown revenue of this country must everywhere place in his hands.

His grace next took notice of the calumnies which were cast upon all who opposed the measures of administration. They had been accused of inflaming the minds of the people, of being hostile to the constitution; nay, he himself had been charged with rejoicing in the successes of the French against this country! He could not help considering it as a disadvantage to hold out to the enemy, that on landing here they would find supporters; but in case of invasion, who would be the men from whom the directory might hope assistance? from those mean sycophants of power, who readily and servilely followed every change, who had been the creatures of every one in authority, and whose loyalty depended on the times! Every Englishman well knew, that if the French succeeded, we should be the most degraded slaves that ever existed; and no reasonable person would believe that the opposers of faulty ministers

would be the abettors of the French. His grace solemnly avowed, that for his own part, though he never would contribute to keep the present ministers in their places, he would exert every effort to repel invaders from our coasts. He would wait for his sovereign's command to take arms in defence of his country, and in the foremost posts of danger prove his loyalty; suspending all difference of opinion till the attack was ended; but if he returned safe, he should return with the same abhorrence and detestation of the minister's conduct, and vow eternal enmity to his system—and, if ever he contracted any alliance with any administration upon any other basis than that he had described, or joined any set of men upon public principles different from those he had professed, he wished the just indignation of his country to pursue him, and the bitterest execrations of mankind to be his portion. As the duke was much exhausted with speaking so long, and the address was copious, his grace was dispensed with reading it, and it was read by the lord chancellor.

The following is an abstract of the address:—"That it be humbly represented to his majesty, that after all the advantages his ministers had received from parliament, as their support, their confidence, and the revenue of these kingdoms, Great Britain had been exposed to all these dangers which it was alleged could only be prevented by resisting the power of the French government; and, after an unavailing expence of blood and treasure, it was now the petition of the house to compel the ministers to open a negotiation for peace, with a total dereliction of the principles on which they had hitherto acted.

"That

"That our situation was too critical to admit of further trial of councils, which had failed; or the same persons in office, who, notwithstanding the heavy charges brought against them, retained their places by their policy, to the great danger of our country, our constitution, and our liberties. Our privileges had been violated, our securities destroyed, the connexion with our sister kingdom threatened with dissolution, and all the foundations of our importance in Europe rendered precarious and uncertain. To extricate us from such difficulties required much fortitude and wisdom; and as we could not look to his majesty's present advisers for these qualities, neither could we expect a successful prosecution of the war, or a secure and equitable peace.

"The representation therefore was submitted, trusting, that his majesty would see, as his subjects did, the urgent necessity of employing other persons, and adopting other councils."

Lord Boringdon said, that the proposition was of a most plain and simple nature; at the same time it was of the utmost importance; for upon their lordships' rejection or adoption of it, depended, in his opinion, the independence of the country, and the existence of the constitution.

The duke, he said, in all his observations upon our present situation, had wholly abstained from speaking of it, with respect to the other powers of Europe. He had made no comparison between them and us, and had, consequently, given a very inadequate idea of our real state, estimated, as it had always been, by the consideration of its relation to others. The impression arising from such a discussion must have been, contentment and exultation at our own superiority, at

the unrivalled blessings we enjoyed, at the dignified station in which we were held by all who looked with horror to the dominion of foreign tyranny, and to whom religion, liberty, and law, were still objects of veneration and love. Had the situation of the Batavian republic, of the Spanish monarchy, or of the neutral maritime powers, been stated; had his grace talked of the tranquillity of Italy or Switzerland; or had he expatiated on the happiness enjoyed even in the French republic, the effect must have been the raising the opinion of the house of those ministers, who, amid such a general wreck of empire, had preserved this country in a state of prosperity and vigour which in no former period had been exceeded. If such a sum as 164 millions had been added to the public debt, with all those other calamities so eloquently, and, he must say, so *carefully*, enumerated in a time of tranquillity, the ministers might be considered as weak and wicked; but the contrary was the fact: that debt and those calamities had been the consequences of a war which had desolated Europe, and were light when balanced with those of other nations. The restoration of monarchy in France had been at one time regarded as a mean of peace, but he would ever deny that it had been the object of the war. In taking advantage of the royalist party, we had acted according to just and sound policy of the time, and according to the general practice of civilized nations. In all the wars in Europe, during the present century, the same conduct had been pursued. Louis the XIVth, on the one hand, and England and Austria, on the other, took pains to influence the Spaniards, and secure their co-operation in what was commonly called the

the succession-war. The same principle occurred with regard to the powers which supported the interests of Charles VII. and Francis the First, as emperor of Germany; nor were the repeated succours afforded by France to James II. and his successors, against England, considered as contrary to the law of nations. Be this however as it might, he had authority for saying, that the restoration of monarchy was not our object in the present case. Tallien addressed a public paper to the French nation, affirming, "that it was against France, and not against their republic, that England was fighting; and that if France was to declare for a monarchy, England would support the republic." This was intelligible language, and could be supposed to mean nothing more or less than that it was not against any form of government in France, but against her gigantic and ambitious projects that England would oppose herself.

Upon another subject his lordship said, he was sorry to perceive the duke had not observed that strict delicacy which it demanded; namely, the situation of Ireland. Could any system of conciliation produce the effect of tranquillising men who had avowed their determination to hear of nothing but what came from themselves? He was much surprised also to hear his grace descant on the numberless atrocities committed by the military in Ireland, and at the belief with which such accounts were received by this country.

Lord Moira had, a few months ago, brought forward this subject, and had been assiduous in collecting the instances he adduced: but it had been proved since, that he had been extremely mistaken in some of the principal cases which he had

laid before the house. No one, his lordship said, could be more friendly to plans of conciliation than himself; but he thought, if the Irish legislature was now to adopt the two measures which were comprehended under the term, no possible good could result from it.

In proposing to the house the address, to remove the present ministers, it was calling upon their lordships to obliterate their former services, to forget that to them we were indebted for the advantageous commercial treaty with France in 1788: to them we owed the improvements which the jurisprudence of this country had derived from juries, and from the decision of the question respecting the abatement of impeachment; the admirable system of finance which had raised the funds to the extraordinary pitch at which they had arrived, previous to the year 1793. Nor was this all; the duke had called for their removal at a period when the suspension of the powers of government, even for a week, must be attended with the most serious consequences; at a time when a conspiracy existed against all the old governments of the earth; when the power and animosity of the enemy were increased; when common spoil would not satisfy him; when he was actually at our gates; when his language was clear and decided;

"Actum," inquit, "nihil est, ni Pæno milite portas
Frangimus, et mediâ vexillum pono
suburrâ."

This was precisely the moment when his grace had recommended to the house to address the king to change the whole executive government of the country! But what must be the effect of such a change? The British constitution would be committed

committed to men whose ideas of parliamentary reform must necessarily weaken our means of national defence, and create disunion throughout every part of the kingdom.

Their lordships were totally unacquainted with the system on which this new government would act; several of the persons, most likely to compose it, had virtually declared the house of commons to be no longer the representatives of the people. Would they condescend to resume their seats in that assembly? and would their first acts be proposed to the consideration of parliament, or ushered into the world through any other channel? In short, their intentions were unknown, or how far, in their desiring to obtain a nominal peace with France, they might humble this country at its feet, or be carried beyond their own plans in the prosecution of this favourite object—a radical reform.

The duke of Bedford here rose to explain, that the address could not have that effect: he had distinctly stated, that if there were men of integrity and talents in that house, and in the house of commons, on the removal of the present ministry, they might procure peace with France, and conciliate Ireland. He had not said, that if the present ministers were dismissed, they must necessarily be succeeded by others who were determined on a radical reform in parliament.

Lord Holland was surprised that the nobles who espoused the present ministers could assert, that this country was not in a state of unprecedented calamity: the rashness of the present administration had brought us into the war, and their incapacity had rendered it peculiarly disastrous.

The noble Lord, indeed, had admitted that our situation was pregnant with danger, whilst he boasted of the dignified state of the country. If then we were “threatened with a conspiracy;” if the enemy was at our gates; did we not need the assistance of men of abilities, fortitude, and vigour? and did not our situation require the house to withdraw its support from those who exhibited throughout their ministerial office a total insufficiency to discharge it properly?

That the present minister had great talents he did not deny; but they were talents unfitted for the present times.

*Nen tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis,
Tempus eget.*

Lofty declamation without energy, boasted eloquence without vigour, little cunning without wisdom, feeble efforts, or temporising expedients, would never rescue us from the impending evils. The authority of Tallien was adduced to prove that the restoration of monarchy in France was not our object; it was not the republic, but the French nation, against which we waged the war. This was true at one time, and at another false, as it happened to suit the views of ministers. Mr. Burke had maintained, that without a monarchy was established in France, there was no security in Europe; and whilst he was urging the necessity of overturning the republic, ministers thought it a proper pretext for attacking the nation, and thus unhappily contrived to enlist every man in France, whether republican or loyalist, against them. It was to the confusion of those two doctrines we owed all the errors and calamities of the war, imitating and inflaming thereby all the French against this country. By this confusion of principle and duplicity of conduct,

conduct, and the obvious treachery of their views, did the allies provoke, not only the interests, but the vanity of France; for every individual felt it to be his duty to resist the combination of princes. England, as had been stated, was at that time in a condition of unexampled prosperity; yet flourishing as it was, found it impossible to check the progress of France; and might we not presume that such miscarriages, so uniformly attending every plan of ministers, could only be owing to their want of capacity as statesmen?

They set out with a confident promise that the war would be of short duration: it had turned out otherwise: and it was natural for them to plead, and candid for us to admit, so far they were in error: but if a long series of action was found to be but one long series of error; if, in a period of six years, changing from principle to expedient, they are not once in the right, were we not justified in saying they were unfit for their offices, and requesting their dismissal?

But this, it is answered, would be ingratitude; they have rendered services to the country, and raised its finances to affluence. But should such a paltry evasion be deemed a justification for their having destroyed the finances of the country since? Let ministers restore them even to the state in which they stood previous to their boasted services: not only have they undone what they themselves did, but all that had been before their times. Ought we, out of gratitude for a small and temporary benefit, to devote our country to them and to destruction?

At the beginning of every session we were told, "these are your ex-

penses for this year"—and constantly the sum had been doubled before the end of the session. This was called "an unforeseen accident." Subsidies were unexpectedly found necessary, and the ordinary mode of supply was abolished. Here too they pleaded error; but were they never cautioned against those subsidies? were there no men eminent for virtue and capacity, who predicted at the time, that the subsidised powers would desert the alliance, and the treasures of the nation be squandered in vain?

He would not dwell on the known desertion of Prussia; but Austria and Sardinia were subsidised to carry on the war. Holland did not desire our interference at all; and as they began, so they continued to do it, merely because we persuaded them. But happy would it have been for this country if ministers had subsidised these powers to make peace instead: unfortunate it was, that Austria was not persuaded so to do, before Belgium was lost! When Sardinia, in return for our subsidy, concluded peace with France, it was also "an unforeseen accident." The minister had been the most unfortunate man in the world in the *multiplicity* of his "unforeseen accidents!" It was the admirable remark of the marquis of Landsdown, "that the allies, by their conduct in the war, would establish a military republic in the heart of Europe"—and thus it had turned out!

Of Ireland, he had but few observations to offer; and the chief was, if conciliation would not produce tranquillity, would coercion? Was there any instance of such an effect proceeding from such measures? Had the war with France or with America, both of which inspired their advocates with the most sanguine hopes, afforded us any reason

reason to put confidence in force? His majesty's present ministers indeed were not likely to tranquillise Ireland by conciliation; how could they, when their concession had always been known to proceed from fear? and when they refused to supplication what they granted to menace? when they never accorded even to the Irish any thing which they had not before refused, or without struggle and resistance. And it was thus the rulers of France argued, and hence arose their reluctance to make peace till they could exact from the fear and feebleness of administration what they would despair of obtaining from any other set of men. Observing in the politic tactics here the nature of our minister, and his jealousy of the people, they naturally thought he did not ask for peace in its true spirit, but because he would appease the clamour by the pretext of negotiation; and the directory had withheld that peace, which, if any other men were our ministers, they would have found it their interest to grant.

The British minister, who was so dignified, that he would hold no terms with the murderers of the king of France, had sent a plenipotentiary over to crouch to one of the very worst of his murderers: and the enemy judging by this, that by waiting longer they would have more ample concessions, repulsed him; for the *malus animus* was no more dead amongst the rulers of France than amongst ours.

Lord Holland concluded with supporting strongly the address for dismissal of the ministers.

The marquis of Downshire affirmed, that no conciliation would save Ireland: if, indeed, thereby was meant, that the king of Great Britain should no longer be acknow-

ledged by Ireland, and that that country should be a province to France, that point might be obtained by conciliation: but he confidently could declare, that it was the general wish of that kingdom to stand or fall by this. Every syllable which a noble earl had stated upon certain necessary measures had been contradicted by facts. There were indeed two sets of people in Ireland; one said they wished only the emancipation of the catholics, the other, parliamentary reform; in which they were not sincere. They made use of these pretexts to deceive the vulgar and the ignorant. He confessed he was not afraid of the effects of coercion, although he liked concession in the right place: but not of that kind which must endanger the state. Ever since our sovereign had ascended the throne, concession had been granted after concession. Ireland had a free trade, as free as could be securely made with regard to the other parts of his majesty's dominions. Every catholic was free who chose to be so—that was, as free as the safety of the state would admit. Were the catholics to have an equal share in the government as the protestants, the government and the country would be lost. He was sorry to be obliged to say, that coercion was absolutely necessary in Ireland, to check and prevent the designs of the united Irishmen. But their efforts were now becoming more feeble, and the deluded people awakened to their sense of duty and allegiance by these measures. He could not but observe the united Irishmen would never have committed such atrocities if they had not received support from the clubs and societies of this country; and he was ashamed to see that too many noblemen gave strength

strength to these societies, by belonging to them. And that the menaces of assassination, and the murders, so shocking to human nature, were to be attributed to the principles which had been disseminated by the emissaries of France, by the corresponding societies, and by those who had affiliated themselves to the directory. Believing this, he had only to add his decided negative to the address.

Lord Romney said, it had been observed by lord Holland, that the two wars had been owing to the want of parliamentary reform—now he could affirm (for he was in parliament during the whole of the American war) that if ever there was a war ended by parliament, it was *that*, to the great joy and exultation of the country. He did not see the slightest ground for the present motion: ministers possessed the public opinion as much as at any period of administration, and they deserved the thanks, not the censure of the house. This war had not been unsuccessful; in no spot upon the whole globe had we lost a single point. The enemy had been blocked up in their own ports, and dared not attack us, even within a league of their coasts, for they had not attempted it at Guernsey or Jersey. Dispiriting language ill became us; we ought to remember the situation in which we stood last year, when surrounded with so many domestic difficulties, and so many domestic enemies. How was the picture changed! Men of every description were now eager to show their zeal in the cause of their country, and to contribute to the government under which they were so happy as to live. Respecting Ireland, he referred the house to the testimony of the marquis of Downshire, who, from connexions

in that kingdom, had much better information than any other person.

It was matter of indifference to him who were the ministers, provided they did their duty; and our capability of carrying on the war with more resources this year than last, he considered as the effect of the wise policy of the present administration. So clear was his conviction on this point, that if this motion (which had his total disapprobation) was not carried, he should vote for approving the conduct of ministers during the progress of the war.

Earl Darnley rose next, and argued for a considerable time against the proposed address. He said, he did not mean to deny there might be many men in the kingdom competent to form an administration besides his majesty's ministers, or his grace's particular friends; but he ever should maintain that it was novel in the practice of the constitution, that the crown should entrust its power to men unknown to the country, either as to their character or principle, which must be the case if neither any person at present in administration, or avowedly in opposition to it, was admitted.

The question was called for, and the lord chancellor began to read the motion, when the marquis of Landsdown addressed the house. He said, the question before them was, whether the present ministers were capable or incapable of conducting the affairs of the country at this critical juncture? judging by their past conduct; and there was no other way to judge, but by the conduct and actions of men.

To form an accurate opinion, we had only to examine what they had promised, and what they had performed; and if they had pro-

anised

missed any thing which they had not performed, what reasons could be alleged for their failure? If they had been proved to have acted as wise men ought to have acted, let them not only be free from censure, but receive applause; for that man must be weak and wicked who could advise the sovereign to dismiss ministers who had acted well. It would be dangerous to suspend the operations of government at such a time, even for three days, without an administration. He spoke not with party spirit; there were men on each side whose talents he most highly respected. — The duke, whose motion was now before the house, possessed an integrity of mind which could not be appreciated beyond its value; and if it should appear that the ministers had reduced the nation from affluence to poverty, and, with the command of the wealth of our country, brought it into that very state in which they declared often the enemy to be, and all this by negligence or incapacity, it would be the duty of their lordships to address their sovereign with petitions to dismiss them.

The marquis then referred to the American war; he remembered, he said, how much the passions were interested on that subject also, and that every person who attempted to address the judgment of the people was stigmatised and calumniated: he lived to see all that false ardour abate, but not until great mischief had followed. Would to Heaven the danger was not now much greater! for the evils of that war were nothing in comparison with the present. Bold and unqualified assurances of success had been repeatedly made in that and in the other house: similar declarations were promulgated in the time of the

American war; yet every one of them were contradicted by the events which took place; and so it had been in this. With regard to allies, it was affirmed, they never would forsake us; when any thing was urged against them it was considered so dangerous, that a public discussion was said to embroil the safety of the country.

The coalition of the powers against France was represented as an irresistible force, far above that confederacy formed in the reign of queen Anne. Nay, he had heard it called a libel upon his imperial majesty to doubt the solvency of the court of Vienna; for actions to the amount of 400l. for every 300l. were deposited in the bank to make good the payments of the imperial loan. The idea of the emperor making peace without us was so absurd, that its statement was not to be endured. The French were said to be in a state of penury; that in Paris, and all the provinces, they were reduced to their last penny; that they had issued milliards in paper, which had been spent in a single campaign; and which, amounting to the sum of one hundred and seventy-two millions sterling, they could never pay; and that it was impossible for them to go on: whereas, we had a million surplus, besides our sinking fund; in short, that our property was unbounded, whilst they had not any.

The war, indeed, was to secure our property, which would be done so completely, notwithstanding the war, that we should never be called upon to go out of the ordinary course of taxation. Let these promises be compared with facts. Added to them, we were assured of great success upon the continent; from which we were now driven,

nor

nor could any thing protect us from mischief there, but the total insignificance to which we were reduced. And what period had there been, till the present, in the history of Europe, when Great Britain dared not throw herself upon the continent, and was blotted out of the map! We had no ambassador to see or represent any thing respecting our balance of power, which we now had lost, and lost through the mismanagement of ministers!

Lord Holland (continued the marquis) asked, the other day, for some papers relative to Belgium being insisted upon as a *sine qua non* of peace: had he been in the house he would have saved him the trouble, because ministers had no such papers to produce: if they had, what could possess them to make that absurd demand upon the French, on the 27th of December, 1796? They then insisted on the restoration of the Milanese and the whole of Savoy; and that every thing should be put on the footing of the *status quo ante bellum*. In less than four months after, it appeared that the emperor had opened a negotiation with the French, stipulating, as a preliminary, not to insist upon any of those points which our ministers insisted upon for him. Could they have done this, had they received communications from the court of Vienna? This negotiation opened the 17th of April, 1797. But what was become of the milliards of paper which were to bear down the finance of France? These they had got rid of, at the expense to their government of only six millions sterling; and contrived to continue the war, which had been pronounced by our ministers impossible. Their paper was extinct, instead of being extended. But what was our state of

finance? We were driven to every desperate resource: somebody said something of swindling, and this was very near the truth. With regard to subscriptions, he must repeat what had been said by Mr. Burke, who had great weight with ministers: "It was one step towards the dissolution of all property." We were going all over the country, making public and chartered bodies apply the property entrusted to them for certain uses to the exigencies of government.—The bank of England is made to give 200,000*l.* without the advice of council. Why had they a council? Why should they throw away their own money, and the money of others, at the feet of the executive government? It was contrary to the principles of justice, and contrary to the rules of law.

There was another point which demanded serious consideration: it had been said, in another house, "that offices and places were held by a stronger tenure than any freehold." This was a doctrine which should never go unrefuted by him: to consider offices and places under the crown of equal or superior weight with freehold property was a most dangerous principle. Offices were obtained by accident, intrigue, or court corruption, and ought never to be placed on the footing of a freehold. If property was insecure, liberty would soon become so; indeed, property might sooner subsist without liberty, than liberty without property.

The marquis next expatiated upon the folly of the ministers, in endeavouring to extend our empire by conquest: it was pleasing to weak minds, because it extended patronage; but, in a national view, it was destructive. We had conquered islands, and given them up.

Corfica

Corsica had been ours, at an immense expense, and was resigned; and it would have been well if we had abandoned our mad schemes of conquest in St. Domingo. Of the state of Ireland he thought differently from the marquis of Downshire; he believed it held from one end to the other by military tenure. That very day he had received accounts, not from a politician, who coloured facts to suit his system; not from a man who was paid for writing news; but a plain individual, who affirmed, that the farmers in Ireland were declining their tillage! What a scene of calamity did this open! at least, it was the possibility of a famine in one part of the empire. But to look at it upon a larger scale; what was the British empire? It consisted of Great Britain and Ireland, with its dependencies, which he conceived to be a considerable burden in any but a commercial view. Even India was only of importance for its wealth; and that was little advantage compared with the losses of life and corruption of morals which it occasioned. Scotland was said to be quiet, and no distrusts, reigning between the gentry and the labourers, leading to disaffection; though the state of trials would scarcely lead one to this conclusion. But the time might soon arrive when England must support Scotland to carry on a war in Ireland; and in this way, if the country was made of gold, and men sprung up as mushrooms, we could not long continue this system. If we were secure from invasion, the want of money would destroy our efforts.

He much objected to coercion; it required superior talents to that of lenity: we might not always hear of a Richelieu, or an Oliver Cromwell; and, from the earliest

history of mankind, the precedents were twenty to one in favour of gentle measures. The difference between a wife and a weak man was, that the wise man saw an event three days before the other.

Respecting the specific motion before the house, the marquis said, though he had always been inclined against similar motions, he was for this, from the experience of 1782, where he found ministers called in to make a peace, and then dismissed. He called for the dismissal of the present ministers immediately, because we were in a desperate situation, and no time was to be lost. Let us but have an administration who could procure tranquillity, and they would achieve great good, although those who were in power should return to it, and those who procured peace were to be hanged for their trouble.

Lord Mulgrave defended the conduct of the ministers, especially as it respected the finances of this country. So far, he said, had it been from any thing approaching to *swindling*, that our engagements had been most punctually and honourably fulfilled, which evinced their capacity and their uprightness. The confidence of the people also was forcibly proved, by the spirit and alacrity with which they now pressed forward with voluntary subscriptions in aid of the growing exigencies of the state. If there were any objection to be urged against administration, it was, their manifesting a desire to enter into a negotiation with France when there was no probability of success. Respecting the last, he believed there was no difference of opinion as to the cause of its termination, nor would it admit an argument in favour of the enemy.

His lordship inveighed with great force and ability against the principles of the united Irishmen, who, he said, were prepared to throw their country into the hands of France; but if it was ever so unfortunate as to fall under the tyranny of the directory, it might now anticipate the horrors of slavery, by reflecting on the situation to which they had reduced all who had listened to their invitations of fraternity. These were the fatal effects which he deprecated, and on these he rested his resistance to a conciliation with the rebels of Ireland, and his defence of the present ministers; for if they could not make peace, as was stated by the duke, nor conciliate Ireland, as was affirmed by lord Holland, was there not reason to apprehend that France, viewing a change of ministers, as a change of the system of the war, as an acknowledgment that we were the original aggressors, would extend her demands with the lamentations of the new ambassador, and grow in insolence as the ministers of the new creation enlarged their sympathies and professed their griefs? He was not for entrusting power to the hands of any men whom the French would regard as their friends; nor did he think it either safe or expedient to remove ministers, who enjoyed the confidence of the country, to make room for those who were supposed less objectionable to the directory; and under these circumstances he could not approve the motion of his grace.

Lord Grenville considered the present motion as much more important to the future interests of the country, than in its reference to the conduct and character of the whole British nation. He related less to these than to the

system on which the parliament and people of England were now acting in opposition to the arms and principles of France. In order to decry this system, and induce the nation to confess the crimes and folly, the injustice and cruelty, with which his grace had charged them, he had revived all the unfounded allegations respecting the principle of the war, so often made in that place, and so often rejected. The decisive proofs upon this subject were to be found in the journals of the house, not in loose recollection and vague report. The speeches with which the king had opened and concluded each session of parliament afforded authentic records of the language of government concerning the origin, grounds, and progress of the war. There were many declarations besides which the house had made at different periods, to obviate misrepresentation. Why were not these appealed to? This was *his* defence of parliament against the imputation of its having varied its language or disguised its objects—of having engaged in the war for the restoration of monarchy, or having pursued it with any other view than that of obtaining an honourable peace for this country.

But, it was asserted, that ministers had pledged themselves that the allies would never desert them. Was it possible such a pledge could have been given, or parliament ever require it? The British government could not control the conduct of foreign powers. They had, indeed, alleged, particularly in the case of Austria, the various motives of good faith, honour, and dignity, of interest, and even security, which ought to induce that power to abide by its engagements with

with Great Britain; and if they had not yet been taught, that by shaking the public faith of their governments, they had shaken the foundation of their thrones, we might regret the circumstance for their sake, and lament it for our own; but we could not, in justice, impute the blame of blindness to men who acted on more honourable principles and with a wiser policy. We had also this consolation, that if we contend alone, it is against an enemy exhausted by the effects of that very system of alliance so condemned. What able statesman would decline availing himself in a just contest of useful allies, because there could be no certainty of their permanent assistance; or refuse a powerful aid, because it might possibly be withdrawn before the termination of the war?

In all the statements of our progress and miscarriages, not the slightest mention had been made of our naval triumphs: on the affairs of the continent, in which we had only a secondary interest, they had dwelt with peculiar emphasis; but of that which was the primary object of Great Britain, not a word had been uttered. The house was adjured to dismiss the ministers, without examining the principal feature in their cause. For the systems of foreign courts, whom we could not direct; for the success of military plans which we could not control; for the operations of distant armies, in which we had not the smallest share; the character and conduct of ministers was attacked. Of that which is immediately within the sphere of British government, which claims the first duty of administration, and the first attention of parliament, they banish all considera-

tion. Against this mode of trial, his lordship said, he must decidedly protest: in that part of the war which belonged to England, and in which alone our conduct could appear entire and unmixed, we had obtained successes which surpassed the most brilliant examples of our ancestors. It was with these that he was not afraid to compare the present war, demanding of his opponents what other period of our history could be found, when, after the decisive and glorious victories gained over the fleets of France, Spain, and Holland, the British navy had rid triumphant at the same moment at the mouths of Brest, Cadiz, and the Texel.

“But we had evinced a disposition to continue the war beyond the time when peace could have been obtained.”

It was difficult to meet an assertion which did not specify the time to which it referred. As a general assertion, he denied it in the most unequivocal terms; but as far as he could collect the time alluded to, it was that of Robespierre, of whom he could not speak in terms of abhorrence equally forcible with those used by every Frenchman. He mentioned the name to remind their lordships of the system of terror then pursued. There was then no government in France, unless a reign of assassins, butchers, and executioners, deserved to be called so. There was no tendency to peace, unless it could be found in the reports of Barrere, who first brought forward the comparison of Rome and Carthage, who then first announced the principle *Delenda est Carthago*, leaving to his successors the first example of that language so completely since adopted by the French directory.

If other proof were wanting, it might be found in that decree of giving no quarter to the British troops; a decree, which in justice to the French troops, little as he was disposed to praise them, he must say, that even *they* had refused to execute. So far was he from thinking that, at that moment, there was any real chance of negotiation, he believed, from his soul, that any British minister, then sent to Paris, would have been sent to the guillotine with the rest of the victims. From the fall of Robespierre, every opportunity which pointed towards peace had been eagerly embraced; the question of the negotiation at Paris had that night been revived—often as it had been discussed before; but his grace had brought forward an accusation so extraordinary, that he could not refrain expressing utter astonishment at it. The duke had affirmed, “that the plan of peace offered by Great Britain rested on the partition and spoliation of the little powers of Europe.” Spain and Holland had never before been considered in the description of “*little powers*”—nor would it have been regarded as a proof of pacific disposition, if we had announced at Paris, that peace must be deferred till Russia, Austria, and Prussia, were compelled (by what means he knew not) to restore the ancient limits of Poland.

We were no parties to that partition which we had always reprobated, but which we had no means to prevent, much less to rescind after its completion. Holland, when we were first driven into the war, was a friendly independent power, with whom rested the defence of those possessions which we considered as the keys of the British empire in India. We offered to

France, that if she could replace Holland in that situation of independence and amity towards us, we would restore those conquests; adding, that we would weigh to what extent our own safety would allow us, to relax from demands in which that consideration had formed the principal ingredient.

So far from plundering the little powers, the projet had been expressly framed to prevent such a measure. If, by the restoration of our conquests in France, we could have procured the Netherlands for the emperor, all plea for those extensive schemes of partition now in agitation would have been removed. The failure of that plan had led to the system now pursued at Rastadt, without the concurrence of Great Britain. Of the negotiation at Lisle, the duke had found it impossible to speak in terms contrary to the sentiments of the country upon it; and therefore had contented himself with blaming the choice of the negotiator. On this, he should only remark, that he was now censured for employing a man on whose conduct, in the most difficult situation, neither malignity nor faction could fix the slightest imputation.

The subject of “radical reform,” for some reason of management or intrigue, seemed to be put less forward in this night’s debate than formerly: the light was thrown on other parts of the picture, whilst this was shaded over, and kept with care in the back ground. Still however it was there: the duke had declared he would never belong to any government that did not carry through this radical reform; and concluded his speech with imprecations on himself if ever he acted with the present ministers who were hostile to it.

Whatever

Whatever dislike his grace might feel to their system, it could not possibly exceed the detestation which they entertained for the principles and conduct of *radical reformers*. Their opinion, indeed, was the same which had been delivered by Condorcet, who, when he announced with joy that the patriots of England were labouring in that cause, added, that from such reform the transition would be short to the establishment of a complete republic.

The duke, indeed, had consented that the new ministers should postpone the question in England; but in Ireland, he required it should be carried immediately: nor was this all; peace must be procured with France notwithstanding her inveterate hostility to us: and a noble marquis had said, what he seemed to think a matter of much indifference to the house, though to the new minister it might be a matter of some consideration, "that the peace must be made, though the person who made it would probably be hanged." The principles on which such a peace was likely to be effected could easily be collected: in addition to all our "injustice," in opposing it, we must humble ourselves to the directory, and confess our sincere repentance for the bloodshed and carnage *they* had occasioned. The marquis had given the house an estimate of the value of our foreign possessions: perhaps the directory, out of pity, and in consideration of our humility, would deliver us from some part of the burden under which we complained; they might possibly have the goodness to relieve us of Jamaica, to take upon themselves the defence of our Indian possessions; perhaps even to discharge us from the weight of Ben-

gal; and though we might lose the best part of our commerce, more than half our revenue, and the whole supply of our naval strength, we should certainly remain a light, disburdened, well-compacted power, peculiarly fitted to resist the future enterprises of France, and to defend ourselves against that tyranny which even the noble lord had described as the utmost of human misery. If these were the conditions of the peace, he seriously believed the marquis's prediction would be verified—"the ministers who made it would be hanged;" and he was sure they would deserve to be so.

But the house had heard that night another matter of no slight importance; the corresponding societies had been mentioned: what these societies were, their publications, their meetings, were in the memory of their lordships.

Lord Downshire had told them, that even the united Irishmen would not have proceeded to their enormities without these encouragements. Yet with these very societies the duke and his party were suspected to have formed a mysterious enigmatical connexion. He trusted this suspicion would be cleared up—he hoped no member of that house could have the smallest difficulty in disavowing the charge, and he *solemnly called upon the duke to do so*.

For himself, and those with whom he had the happiness of being connected, he had explained the motives of their conduct; it was for the house to decide upon the question; it would not affect the principles on which they acted, anxious only to bear their part, whatever it might be, in that noble stand which placed this country at this moment in a state of greater

consideration and respect in Europe than ever she had acquired at the head of the most triumphant league. If they were anxious for glory, it was the glory of resistance, first in labour, first in danger, and, he trusted, not last in honour!

The marquis of Landdown in reply said, the noble lord derived no inconsiderable aid from a loud voice, a confident manner, and an authoritative air, the usual concomitants of office. But nothing should prevent his maintaining what no wise representations could do away. He denied the arguments used by the secretary of state: he contended that it was not the interest of France, any more than of this country, to divide the German empire, and dissolve a number of the small independent states which were so many years the bulwarks, and preserved the balance, of Europe, and to divide them, so as to add them to three or four great powers. To this the republic was driven. Great Britain had refused them reasonable conditions of peace, which they were anxious to obtain, and their only alternative was to hang round the emperor, and make the best terms they could with him. It was not to the time of Robespierre, he alluded, when he spoke of the best opportunity of making peace; though even then advantageous terms might have been made; and he saw no reason why it might not be concluded at this moment. His lordship concluded with lamenting the dangers of the present contest, saying, that in a few months it may be a question about the people's liberties, their lordships' properties; and Heaven forbid it should ever touch the crown!

The duke of Bedford rose to observe, that the secretary of state had

been driven to his usual miserable shifts, and again assimilated his own fate with that of the country, to avert the vengeance of an irritated and injured people. He felt no surprise at being himself calumniated; and he was now determined to trouble them no more, since his conduct, and not the distresses of the country, was made the subject of discussion. Their lordships could best judge whether he had formed any mysterious and enigmatical connexion with the corresponding societies, or with any set of men who were traitors to their country. He was now called to answer the charge alleged in such extraordinary terms, as "management, intrigue, and trick," and it might astonish the house that to such charges he made no reply. There was such a thing as true honour, and there were characters who imbibed it from their infancy. Those who possessed it were as little capable of suspecting others of meanness "and mysterious enigmatical connexion" as they were of practising it. He should be sorry if the house imagined him capable of descending to such low and degrading resources; but to those who did suspect him he should make no reply, but a declaration of sovereign contempt for them, their character, their conduct, and their opinions!

The question was called for, and the house divided, on the duke's motion.

Non-contents 88, proxies 25—113.
Contents 11, proxies 2—13.

As soon as the division was over, lord Romney moved the following resolution:

"Resolved,

"That in a crisis, in which all the interests of the country are at stake, we have seen the zeal and public

public spirit of every rank rising in proportion to the magnitude of the occasion, and animated by the same sentiments: we deem it an indispensable duty, instead of distracting the council of our sovereign by proposals of change, to renew the declaration of our adherence to the principles which have governed the council, and in which the parliament has uniformly concurred for the security of these kingdoms against foreign attack, and for the maintenance of our religion, laws, and constitution."

The resolution was carried *ne mine contradicente*.

We shall close this chapter with a short account of the progress of a bill for regulating the publication of newspapers, which was passed in this session.

On the 13th of June, the attorney-general brought in a bill for regulating the proprietors and publishers of newspapers. Mr. Jekyll opposed its being read the third time, from what he called a motive of constitutional jealousy of every thing which appeared an attack upon the liberty of the press. The house, he said, ought to be extremely cautious before they assented to any measure which might diminish that inestimable blessing. It was now upwards of a century since it had been touched; the jurisdiction of the star-chamber, and the power of the licenser of the press, might easily be recollected. This abominable jurisdiction was contrived by the long parliament, and enforced during the two detestable reigns of Charles II. and king James. After the revolution, these regulations continued only six years; and (if he remembered aright) were ended in the year 1694. He knew the attorney-general had affirmed, that this was not an at-

tack, but a regulation of the liberty of the press: but it created a facility in prosecutions against it, and this was objection enough; for it was the commencement of a system tending to destroy freedom; and, with that freedom, public liberty. The censorial power of our press was the great guardian of British liberty, and a celebrated author (M. de Lolme) had assigned it as the cause. This bill would make men of property and respectability retire from newspapers altogether; and they then would fall into the hands of men of desperate fortune and low character, and the consequence would be an increase instead of diminution of the licentiousness of the press. Hand-bills on brown paper would be substituted every day for a useful well-regulated paper. This bill would render innocent persons liable to prosecution, merely because they were proprietors, although they had no share in the management of the publication. He opposed it, therefore, as an infringement on the invaluable blessing of liberty, handed down to us by our ancestors.

The attorney-general said, his object was to restore, not infringe upon it: the true liberty of the press was, that every man might publish what he pleased, but he should be responsible to the public for what he published. Any man might make fair and free remarks on public men and public measures; and such men might carry on their newspapers after this bill had passed as well as before: it only secured to the public that which they had a right to demand, the appearance of a responsible party in a court of justice, so as to be amenable to law. So far from this being a means of silencing the newspapers,

into the hands of the dregs of the people, it would take it out of such hands, and exclude all persons, who were not visible to those whom they calumniated, from being able to shelter themselves in obscurity. He had so frequently explained himself upon this bill, that he would only now add, it was upon the principle of the liberty of the press he brought it in, to restore this sacred blessing, by rendering those who injured the characters of others answerable for it in the same way that every other man was answerable.

Sir Francis Burdett said, that he considered this subject to be of so important a nature, that he could not allow it to pass without stating his objections. The measure came from the king's attorney-general; a quarter from whence any measure should be regarded by Englishmen with suspicion, especially this: it was the offspring of a very doubtful parent, ushered into the world under very unfavourable auspices, and introduced at a time in which it might reasonably be supposed government would be desirous of keeping its conduct from public investigation. The law was already armed with more than power sufficient for punishing the errors and restraining the excesses of the press: but a government aiming at tyranny would never think the press enough under control, until it was able to commit every outrage without the fear of reproach. To practice injustice without hearing of it, was the grand *desideratum* and key-stone of tyranny; and thus, every state aspiring at that object, never failed to complain bitterly of the licentiousness of the press, and of the difficulty of coming at those persons, the proprietors of public prints, who, if not

venal, were marked out as victims.

A good and free government had nothing to apprehend, and every thing to hope, from the liberty of the press. But despotism courted shade and obscurity: it dreaded the scrutinising eye of liberty: and if an arbitrary disposed prince, supported by an unprincipled minister, and backed by a corrupt parliament, was to cast about for means to secure such a triple tyranny, no means better could be devised than the bill upon the table.

The great man with whom the minister seemed condemned to form a striking and everlasting contrast (his father), when pressed by the sycophants of his time to allow a measure of this kind to be brought into parliament under his administration, when urged to it in order to suppress the calumnies against his *own* reputation, replied with a dignity of soul which stamped his character—"No—the press, like the air, is a chartered libertine." The present ministers sought to scare us into their measures, by holding out the dread of a revolution, whilst themselves were the greatest, the only revolutionists from whom we had any thing to fear, from whom we had suffered much, and had still more to expect. They had already nearly completed a great revolution, not in favour of, but against liberty. He then reminded the house of the unconstitutional measures daily introduced: one he said, he could not forbear naming; the infamous practice (by which the whole law of imprisonment was changed) of sending men to those Bastilles which disgraced the country—those private prisons, where, under the pretence of regulations, punishments were

were inflicted upon men as illegal as they were cruel. And what were those regulations so called? To keep men in dismal, heart-sickening solitude—to feed them upon bread and water, and that scantily too—to doom them to hard labour (an indefinite term) exacted by stripes, at the will, perhaps, of a merciless goaler. If this was not tyranny, he knew not what the definition or essence of tyranny was. Natural it was for such a government to complain of the press: it was part of that revolution which had been brought about, and which the present bill would secure, the seeds of which were sown as early as the accession of the present king to the throne; and the effects had been foreseen by the wise lord Chatham, and the country had been forewarned by him. But ministerial corruption blinded the nation then, as it did now; and there was reason to fear it would end, as that great statesman foretold, in the subversion of our old free constitution, and the establishment of a German government. He did not mean this as a term of invective: but he firmly believed there was a plan for governing this country, not according to its old liberal maxims, as established at the Revolution, but according to a system repugnant to every principle of justice and of liberty. The bill appeared the more dangerous, because it was not a direct open attack—it was a measure which sapped and undermined; and, without wearing the garb of violence, like the silent lapse of time, was so much the more certain of its effect. Seeing therefore the mischief, and no adequate good remitting from it, relying upon the sense, spirit, and well-founded jealousies of our forefathers upon this subject, he

concluded with saying, he would guide his conduct upon this occasion by their judgment, and decidedly vote against such a bill, deriving, as it did, its origin from the attorney-general of the crown.

Mr. Ryder rose, and challenged any one to prove that this bill had the smallest tendency to make that criminal which was not criminal by the law of the land before. It did not vary the manner in which libels were to be tried;—it was only to prevent the evasions of the proprietors of the newspapers from being answerable for any thing which appeared in their papers. Answerable they always were by law; and this was to compel them to come forward, and abide the event of a fair trial in a court of justice. This was not only the law of England, but of all countries, under all governments, since the press had been invented.

Mr. Sheridan contended that it was bad in principle. Government pretended that they could not find the *editor* of the *Courier*; but it was not true; there was always a responsible person concerned in that paper, whose name and address must be at the stamp-office. The first object of the bill was to throw all the newspapers into the hands of government. Such he was afraid would still be the effect of it. Persisting in this measure only proved there was a systematic design to put an end to the liberty of the press altogether. The visible publisher of a newspaper had hitherto been considered as the responsible person in a court of justice; but now a different plan was adopted. He objected to this: there were many who contributed to the publication of very excellent works, useful to the public, who yet had good reasons for concealing

cealing their names. What was the evil of this? There would always be a publisher easily brought forward to answer all the purposes of security for what was printed. He then proceeded to show that this bill tended to do away the spirit of Mr. Fox's bill; and, lastly, objected to it, because it reversed the order of judicial proceedings, by casting the *onus* on the person accused, not the accusing party.

The solicitor-general replied, that the honourable gentleman did not understand the bill: insinuations were thrown out that government was destroying the constitution of the country—a most unjust and false accusation. In the *Courier* was one of the most atrocious libels respecting French prisoners. The prevention of such libels anonymously put in, and disseminated far and wide, was alone the object of the bill.

Mr. Sheridan wished to know whether the editor of a newspaper, if he could prove the paragraph had been taken from a French paper, should be liable to the penalties enacted in the bill.

The solicitor-general answered, that if the paragraph tended to inspire contempt of his majesty's person or government, the editor of a

newspaper publishing such a libel should be liable to these penalties, whether copied from a French newspaper or not.

Mr. Wilberforce expressed the strongest disapprobation of the manner in which the bill was opposed. He felt particularly shocked, he said, at the language used by sir Francis Burdet; and still more so, because, from the liberal principles of that baronet, he was likely to express the sentiment of a large community. The tendency of such expressions and intemperate zeal was mischievous.

Mr. Robert Thornton said, that no precaution ought to be omitted to curb the licentiousness of the press. We had witnessed the horrors of the revolution in France; we had to deplore the rebellion in Ireland; the principal source of each was the scandalous abuse of the liberty of the press. The question being put for the postponing of the bill, the house divided:

Ayes	-	-	9
Noes	-	-	44

Majority - 35

The bill afterwards passed both houses, and received his majesty's assent.

CHAP. VI.

Debates in the British Parliament concerning the Affairs of Ireland. The Earl of Moira's Motion in the House of Lords—negatived. Interesting Explanation between the Earl of Moira and the Marquis of Downshire. The Duke of Leinster's Motion respecting Ireland. Lord G. Cavendish's Motion in the House of Commons on the same Subject—negatived. Mr. Fox's Motion on the same Subject—rejected. Message from his Majesty. Proposal from certain Militia Regiments to serve in Ireland. Debates on this Proposal in the House of Lords—In the House of Commons.

THE discontents in Ireland began about the commencement of this session of parliament

to hasten to a crisis; and the disturbances, of which the reader will find a detail in our next chapter, were

were on the point of breaking out. To avert these calamities, some well-intentioned members endeavoured to interest the British houses of parliament in favour of the Irish people, and to recommend measures of lenity and conciliation. —How far these endeavours were well-timed or judicious, will be discussed in the succeeding chapter. For the present, we shall content ourselves with presenting a simple sketch of the debates.

On the 22d of November, the earl of Moira renewed the motion which he had made in the preceding session respecting the affairs of Ireland. The state of the empire in general, he observed, was materially altered since that period; many interesting political events had taken place; the most prominent amongst these was certainly the rupture of the late negotiation for peace. This, as was declared by the highest authority to that house and to the country, was broken off on no trivial grounds; it was in consequence of no less a cause than a settled determination on the part of the enemy to subvert the constitution and government of this kingdom. If the statement was just, he entreated their lordships to look at the fatal consequences which such a prospect presented. He should argue upon the supposition, that this representation was just, though his own opinion was very different. If the contest became a struggle for existence on the part of both governments, what was the end to which it would lead? what was to be the situation of the country under this protracted expenditure, when its finances already were depressed and embarrassed? If this event of the negotiation had been foreseen (as had confidently been asserted),

ought not provision to have been made to support the burdens which it rendered necessary? ought not some means to have been employed to enable us to have put an end to the cause from which the necessity of the contest proceeded? If we were merely to stand upon the defensive, and if the war was to be protracted a year longer upon this footing, the resources of this country could not sustain the embarrassments which would arise *in addition* to the difficulties we endured already. To judge of our situation, it would be necessary to take a view of the recent events of the war. No person rejoiced more than he did in the victory obtained over the Dutch fleet; yet what was the effect of this brilliant exploit upon the state of the nation? It was acknowledged that some design had been in agitation, some danger had been threatened; and the impending mischief had for the moment been turned aside; but was the experiment to be repeated! were we contented merely to parry the blow which aimed at our existence? In such a system he saw nothing but ruin to our resources, nothing but complete destruction to the oppressed and tottering fabric of our finances. They had indeed been extolled as adequate to any exertions we might be called upon to make; but he professed himself at a loss to discover upon what foundation this sanguine representation had been built. He did not deny that we had great means of defence; but he must complain of their improper application, and of the mischievous consequences that resulted. There were rumours of new schemes of finance, and extraordinary ways of supporting the efforts which it would be necessary to exert; and this

this did not furnish a very encouraging argument in favour of our situation.

If, however, the enemy was bent on the destruction of our constitution, the best mode of repelling the danger was to interest the hearts of the people in defence of the advantages they enjoyed, to convince them they had something worth contending for, and impress the nation with the distress which they might lose. It was necessary also, that every part of the country should be able to contribute to its defence. His lordship said, he feared that this was not the case: he had seen a paper, stating the supplies of the present year, which enumerated, amongst other articles, a sum for the service of Ireland; and this was set down as a reason for continuing the restriction on the bank. If Ireland, instead of being assisted by England, was now (to say nothing more) but a dead weight upon her in her present embarrassed state, it was a consideration of the most serious importance. When our resources were so vaunted, it was a painful reflection to know, that the sister kingdom was no longer in a condition to contribute to the general cause. If Ireland was reduced to such a state of wretchedness, that men actually died for want, without any failure of the natural supplies of subsistence; if manufactures in parts of the country, where formerly they had been most flourishing, were reduced to nothing; if the industry of the people was suspended; to what cause was it to be ascribed? When the increasing commerce of this country was made a subject of exultation, who would rejoice to think it was increased at the expense of the sister kingdom? If the manufacturers and merchants of Eng-

land found their trade extended, he was persuaded they were too generous, too liberal, too high of spirit, and too just, to wish to engross profits in which their fellow subjects in Ireland did not participate. In the addresses that had been sent about, to solicit subscriptions for the relief of the distressed manufacturers in Ireland, it was stated, that the greater part of them were out of employment and starving. He referred their lordships to the application made by the lord-mayor of Dublin for relief; by which document it appeared, that upwards of 37,000 manufacturers were reduced to the extreme of distress in that city. To prove the fact, by another instance, in the towns of Belfast and Newry, the customs had never produced 150,000l.; the present produce of them would not amount to a fifteenth part of the sum. The causes of these unhappy effects there must originate in something connected with the internal system of the country. Last year, it was in vain that he called the attention of the house to their state, in vain he predicted the consequences which our system had now produced. The situation of Ireland was now more urgent; and, by every motive of justice and policy, we were called upon to remedy the evils which the sister kingdom suffered, and to prevent those which might ultimately extend to us. It had been said, that for their lordships to interfere would be to usurp an authority over an independent country; to which his answer was, that the circumstances were such as might be the foundation of an address for the recall of a viceroy, and, therefore, the house was competent to the review of such proceedings. To move this address was far from his intention; he

he highly respected the character of the present lord-lieutenant of Ireland; he was convinced that he used every effort in his power to alleviate their situation; but he must contend, that the plan, so unwise in its application, and so obstinately pursued, was the cause of all the calamities which it endured. The plan was a plan of ill-judged severity; severity, not only in individual direction, but general tendency: nor were the measures warranted by sound policy. Men, influenced by their passions, who were kept constantly irritated and inflamed, might sometimes proceed to inexcusable lengths; but this did not justify a system of oppression. In observing the state of Ireland, the first thing that struck him was the light in which it was customary for the military to view an Irishman, and the fatal effects of encouraging such unjust prejudices: in their estimation, every Irishman was a rebel to the English government, and all kinds of insult were exercised on this supposition, even in those parts of the country where things were as quiet and peaceable as within seven miles of London. His lordship related one circumstance, to give some idea of the insult to which every man there was liable. The curfew was mentioned in the history of England, and had always been considered, as a degrading badge of servitude; it had been established in Ireland, with all the rigour of barbarous times. An instance had occurred within his own knowledge, in which a party of soldiers had come to the house of a man by the road side: they insisted upon his extinguishing his fire and candle; the man entreated that he might be permitted to retain his light, because his infant daughter was in convulsions,

and the mother hanging over the child in its bed, in agony at its distress, and waiting in hopes of a favourable moment, to offer it some relief, which she could not possibly do in the dark. The party, however, insisted that the fire and light should be extinguished, and all further opposition would have been fatal.

In former times it had been the custom for Englishmen to hold the infamous proceedings of the inquisition in detestation: one of the greatest horrors with which it was attended was, that the person, ignorant of the crime laid to his charge, or of his accuser, was torn from his family, immured in a prison, and in the most cruel uncertainty as to the period of his confinement, or the fate which awaited him. To this injustice, abhorred by protestants in the practice of the inquisition, were the people of Ireland exposed. All confidence, all security, were taken away. In alluding to the inquisition, he had omitted to mention one of its characteristic features. If the supposed culprit refused to acknowledge the crime with which he was charged, he was put to the rack, to extort confession of whatever crime was alleged against him by the pressure of torture. The same proceedings had been introduced in Ireland. When a man was taken up on suspicion, he was put to the torture; nay, if he was merely accused of concealing the guilt of another. The rack, indeed, was not at hand; but the punishment of picqueting was in practice, which had been for some years abolished, as too inhuman, even in the dragon service. He had known a man, in order to extort confession of a supposed crime, or of that of some of his neighbours, picqueted till he actually

actually fainted; picqueted a second time till he fainted again; and, as soon as he came to himself, picqueted a third time, till he once more fainted; and all upon mere suspicion! Nor was this the only species of torture: men had been taken and hung up till they were half dead, and then threatened with the repetition of this cruel treatment, unless they made confession of the imputed guilt. These were not particular acts of cruelty, exercised by men abusing the power committed to them, but they formed a part of our system. They were notorious; and no person could say who would be the next victim of the oppression and cruelty which he saw others endure. This, however, was not all; their lordships, no doubt, would recollect the famous proclamation issued by a military commander in Ireland, requiring the people to give up their arms: it never was denied that this proclamation was illegal, though defended on some supposed necessity; but it was not surprising, that any reluctance had been shown to comply with it, by men who conceived the constitution gave them a right to keep arms in their houses for their own defence; and they could not but feel indignation in being called upon to give up their right. In the execution of the order, the greatest cruelties had been committed: if any one was suspected to have concealed weapons of defence, his house, his furniture, and all his property, was burnt: but this was not all; if it was supposed that any district had not surrendered all the arms which it contained, a party was sent out to collect the number at which it was rated; and, in the execution of this order, thirty houses were sometimes burned down in a single night.

Officers took upon themselves to decide discretionally the quantity of arms; and upon their opinions these fatal consequences followed. Many such cases might be enumerated; but, from prudential motives, he wished to draw a veil over more aggravated facts which he could have stated, and which he was willing to attest before the privy council, or at their lordships' bar. These facts were well known in Ireland, but they could not be made public through the channel of the newspapers, for fear of that summary mode of punishment which had been practised towards the Northern Star, when a party of troops, in open day (and in a town where the general's head-quarters were), went and destroyed all the offices and property belonging to that paper: it was thus authenticated accounts were suppressed. His lordship concluded with entreating the house to take into serious consideration their present measures, which, instead of removing discontents, had increased the number of the discontented: the moment of conciliation was not yet passed; but if the system were not changed, he was convinced Ireland would not remain connected with this country five years longer.

Lord Grenville, in reply, said, that it was a matter of no small difficulty to enter into the question now brought forward, on the vague grounds and isolated facts upon which it was supported. The noble baron had spoken of our depressed resources, and ill-applied means of defence; and had given it as his opinion, that should the war be protracted another year, its sure consequence would be the ruin of the country. An opinion so disheartening and unfounded, he hoped, would be singular. For his part, he was fully

fully satisfied, that we had means and resources abundantly sufficient to prosecute the contest, not only one year, but to the utmost extent which the imagination of any man could suppose the enemy to pursue it. Our naval exploits, our brilliant victories, and the advantages resulting from them, were just reasons for exultation. But what are we told?—that we had only *parried a danger*! Could the house hear with patience so low a statement of our important successes? Whatever our situation was, be it more or less exposed to difficulty and danger, it admonishes us cordially to unite in the defence of our constitution. For the necessity of this concurrence, he appealed, not only to England, but to every branch and member of the British empire, whose individual interest and safety, as well as that of the public, must depend on this co-operation. He was far from being able to discern what should alienate the affections of Ireland, or indispose her from this general union. He expressed his surprise to hear this government accused of hostile dispositions towards the sister country, or eager to keep up in it a system of coercion. He confidently appealed to the house, whether we had ever abandoned measures of concession or conciliation? For the whole space of thirty years his majesty's government had been distinguished by the same uniform tenderness of regard, by the same adherence to the principles of a mild system. Amongst the various instances exhibited, of liberality and kindness on the part of this country towards Ireland, he adverted to the establishment of its parliament into an independent legislature, and a wide extension of its commercial privileges: nor could we enter into a discussion like the present,

consistent with the independence we had sanctioned: it would be an undue interference with the Irish legislature, and might be regarded as a manifest breach of solemn compact. The agitation of the question would be an impropriety in the house, and he would use no further arguments to prove it. But that which had excited his astonishment in the earl of Moira's speech, was, the cruelties said to be promoted by the British military, at the instigation of our government. It was, indeed, no arduous task to exonerate the former from any charges of inhumanity. Bravery, clemency, and good nature, were the characteristic features of the English disposition. That there might be individual exceptions, he pretended not to say; but, if such excesses were perpetrated, were there no courts of justice, no laws, no magistrates, no tribunals open to the complaints of the oppressed? Ireland had its juries as well as this country, and the same safeguards were provided for the lives of the Irish as for Englishmen. Indeed, if a system so rigorous as was described, had been pursued, it must naturally be resented by a spirited and independent people. But what was the object for which these troops were sent over? To protect the great body of the people against conspiracy and assassination; to overawe and counteract the machinations of a set of men, who were actively plotting the destruction of their country, and favouring the designs of our most inveterate enemy. If against such men they had been at times incited to acts of harshness and severity; if they had been occasionally warmed into a sense of indignation, which broke out into insults and outrages, no one, who understood the heart of man, would wonder. What was
more

more natural than that a large body of Englishmen should be enraged against the abettors of a conspiracy, to deliver up the country to the French invaders? That such a system did exist, had been proved? and that large sums had been distributed to hire assassins to murder those who were inimical to their traitorous plans; to intimidate all witnesses, who came to give evidence against them; and even to deter juries from giving a conscientious verdict. Were not the same terrors hung over the heads of the judges and magistrates, to scare them from the performance of their sacred duty? Was this a system to be viewed with the cool composure, and deliberate circumspection, of civil prudence? Impossible! But it was the cause which was to be lamented; and if it had instigated some spirited individuals to acts of cruelty, they were to be attributed to those men whose atrocious conduct and evil designs had provoked them. Keen, notwithstanding, must be the regret which such unwarrantable revenge had excited in every humane bosom. The same sensations must be awakened upon this subject in the Irish; and here he could not withhold joining the tribute of praise paid by earl Moira to the present governor of Ireland. No public man, placed in so critical a situation as lord Camden, had ever displayed more exemplary moderation in the discharge of a painful duty. If severe measures had been adopted, the circumstances of the country had required it; and if any partial abuses existed, we had only to lament them. He could not, therefore, see what utility could be derived from the removal of a person whose conduct was thus commendable, and whose only care seemed to be a

punctual execution of the laws. If any abuse attended the system, on which the government of Ireland had acted, the laws were open to grant redress, and inflict punishment. No imputation could justly be cast upon the British military, who had been sent to Ireland for the purpose of protection, and were paid by that country for defending their liberties. Now was it only the English military who acted on these lamentable occasions? The nobility and gentry of Ireland were actively employed in the same service; and to their spirited exertions would the Irish owe their laws, their properties, and their lives. Of the press, which was said to be abridged of all its freedom most unjustly, he held now in his hands a paper printed, the contents of which were too shocking to read: its avowed object was to point out innocent men, by name, to the poignard of assassins. It loaded his majesty with the most opprobrious epithets, and reviled the English nation with every term of contumely, affirming it to be the duty of every Irishman to wrest from the hand of *English ruffians* the property which those English ruffians had wrested from their ancestors. This was no ambiguous language; it developed their project of separating Great Britain and Ireland, an object which was suggested by France: and if this impious attempt should succeed, what would be the result, but that confusion, anarchy, and the public enemy, would rush in upon the country? Such was the situation in which an open conspiracy had reduced the sister kingdom; and how could it be meliorated but by a system of vigorous laws; nor could those laws be enforced without entrusting great power to those on whom we impose the arduous

task

task of enforcing them. The question was, would their lordships interpose on the present occasion, and tell the parliament of Ireland, and the Irish magistracy, that we were more careful of the interests and happiness of their people than they themselves were; and that the English military were not to obey the Irish laws, but the arbitrary instructions of the British parliament? Earl Moira said, that no sentiment had fallen from him to that effect. He had not reprobated the troops in Ireland for obeying the law, but the conduct of the executive government, which was repugnant to the feelings of the Irish people, inconsistent with the British character, and highly injurious to the real interests of both countries.

He asked the noble secretary, whether he knew of any point, under the general relation of the two countries to each other, in which any peer of parliament had a clearer right to address them than himself on the present subject? and, if he were now to move an address to his majesty to remove lord Camden, whether he was not competent to make, and the house to agree, to such a motion? He referred to a case which occurred in a reign when no privileges of the parliament were supposed to encroach upon the prerogatives of the crown—the reign of Charles the 1st. The case was that of the duke of Lauderdale. The parliament of Scotland was then independent of this country, and both stood precisely in the situation that Ireland now did respecting England; and yet the parliament here came to a vote, that the evil counsellors about the king was a grievance, and that the duke of Lauderdale was not fit to be trusted in any office or place of trust, whilst he was in

Scotland: which vote was doubtless intended to have been followed by an impeachment, which did not take place, owing to the dissolution of parliament which soon followed. But this illustrated the principle, and established the right of a member of the British parliament bringing forth a motion to advise his majesty to remove any of his ministers in such part of his dominions as were possessed of legislative bodies of its own. If, therefore, from motives of respect to the high station and personal character of lord Camden, he forbore agitating the question, it was not because he was not entitled so to do; if there existed a necessity for so doing.

Lord Grenville, he said, had only taken notice of partial points and incidental abuses. He had stated facts: a combination, he would admit, was formed in Ireland, and a most powerful alarming combination; but coercion was not the means of dissolving it. But had not the course of conduct adopted by the British legislature for these thirty years past been a uniform series of conciliatory measures? to which he replied, it did not become the secretary of state to lay much stress on the British legislature towards Ireland, while, by his own admission, it exercised an authority so unwarrantable, that the British legislature fifteen years since, on a principle of justice, thought fit to renounce it altogether.

There existed a conspiracy of united Irishmen; and many persons who had joined that body had committed acts culpable in the extreme; but he did not believe the cause assigned just now was the real one: it was not originally with the design of overturning the constitution that these Irishmen united; it was with the view of a parti-

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mentary reform; nor could they be censured for it, when the house of commons itself had come to a resolution for that purpose. He was far from approving the outrages alleged, and some of which he did not doubt they had committed; but the odious detestable practice of assassinations did not arise from any settled plan to overturn government, but from private malice and revenge, the effect of personal disputes. The state of Ireland was most deplorable; it was too pressing to admit delay; and what would be the consequence if an army was to land under the present system of coercion? Destruction—which would extend to Britain. There could be no reliance placed upon the people unless they had hopes of conciliation: he again most strongly recommended it. He stood there not merely as a peer of parliament, not as a member of a judicial assembly, but in the capacity of an hereditary counsellor of the crown. He offered this advice to his majesty in that house, he offered it to their lordships, and he offered it to the country, conscious of having performed an important duty in these arduous times.

The lord chancellor rose to resist an expression, he said, of his noble friend, who had stated that it was a point of form for the parliament of Great Britain to abstain from any interference with the independent legislature of Ireland: on the contrary, it was not merely the form, but the essence of public faith and justice: it was matter of fact, that Ireland was as competent by law to make laws, superintend the administration of justice, enact any measure for its internal regulation, in like manner as Great Britain ever had done formerly, or did, at the present moment, for this

country; and the more so, because there the parliament had an unappealable jurisdiction, which there was no power in this kingdom to alter or vary. The case of the duke of Lauderdale was not applicable, for though he was a member of the executive government, it was not on any action in his official capacity that the vote to address his majesty to remove him was founded. It was because he was one of the cabal (as the famous administration of that period, 1673, was then called), not for his conduct in Scotland, that the duke of Lauderdale fell under the animadversion of parliament: there was no attempt of the English to interfere with the Scotch parliament.

It was too true, that many individuals have been assassinated in Ireland, and many more marked out for assassination: this, though lord Moira thought it arose from malice and revenge, was to him a proof that there existed a strong conspiracy against all whose duty it was to preserve order. He was called upon (he said) to bear this testimony, as also of the printed paper before mentioned; by which it was too evident that a number of individuals were doomed to be the victims of destruction in future.

As to the regulation of putting out the lights, which had been considered as a badge of slavery, it depended on circumstances whether it was so or not: in the present instance, it was a humane as well as a prudent regulation. If there was good reason to suspect that there were dangerous conspiracies carrying on in the houses in question, by enforcing the extinction of fire and candle, the inhabitants were prevented from incurring the guilt, and rescued from the punishment of nefarious practices: he knew

knew nothing of its being improperly enforced; it was a measure suggested to the parliament of Ireland; they had considered and determined on it; for us, it was useless to cavil at it, as there was no power in this country to put an end to that regulation: it was particularly unfit for the discussion of the house, as their lordships had no authentic information of the grievances of Ireland in the first place; no power to redress them, if existing, in the second; they could not pass an opinion on them regularly, nor attempt to act, without subverting law, and counteracting authority. But arms had been demanded, when they only were retained for self-defence. This might be a fact, and justified by the same necessity. Times of imminent danger required vigorous exertions: but was this any proof that Ireland was not governed by law? Those who best knew the officers of the courts of law there would attest, that nothing need be feared for want of the due administration of justice in that country. It was from misinformation, or too hasty zeal, that any insinuations were thrown upon the Irish parliament by the noble lord, as if they would not take care of the welfare and the interests of the people of that country. For himself, he could not help expressing a hope, that in future a little reflection would take place before any observations were made public which might irritate the minds of men, but which, resting upon bare assertion, however respectable, could lead to no conclusions but errors.

Earl Moira said, that he suspected the paper alluded to only to be an invention, to justify the measures adopted and complained of in Ireland. No printer of a

newspaper could have gained it from an authentic source; for no man concerned in a conspiracy for assassination would communicate his own criminal intention, or that of his colleagues. It was not by a system of terror that assassination was to be prevented: if you wish to prevent it (continued his lordship), awaken them to the sense of its *baseness*: by stating to them, only that it is cruel, you produce no good, as they are actuated by passions which have been worked up into fury, they cannot be deterred by any thing you can say of cruelty. Give them an elevated idea of their own condition; teach them to feel the dignity of human nature undebased by guilt, and unstained by the foulest, as it is the meanest of crime, assassination; and this can only be done by convincing them that they live under a just and equitable government.

Lord Grenville protested that he did not take his information from any newspaper, but from a printed hand-bill, which bore at its head a description of a number of persons, who were known as witnesses, informers, and spies, and were to be considered as proper objects for death—the inference was, every person concerned in bringing the united Irishmen to justice was to be assassinated. He trusted that he knew too much of the disposition of men belonging to public assemblies to attribute to them all the same motives and the same views; but the object of most of the acting and leading members of the united Irishmen was, to overthrow the government of that country, and render it a province to France.

The question of adjournment was then put and carried.

After this debate, no direct motion

was introduced on the affairs of Ireland in the house of peers till the month of March; but many casual allusions were made to them, as our readers must have perceived, in the agitation of other subjects. In the course of one of these, a conversation took place between the earl of Moira, and the marquis of Downshire, in which the gauntlet dropped by the former nobleman was taken up by the other, with respect to the proofs to be exhibited of severities exercised by the military on the people of Ireland.

On Monday, 26th of March, the house was more than usually attended, to hear the explanation between the earl of Moira, and the marquis of Downshire, respecting the state of Ireland.

The earl of Moira opened the subject with supporting his former assertions. He had the affidavits of one hundred persons, he said, to prove that terror had been employed in forcing confessions from individuals against themselves, and against their neighbours: that torture had been used, such as piequeting and half-hanging; that houses had been burnt most wantonly, and in prodigious numbers. The deponents were ready to come forward to the bar of the house with their testimonies; and he had but one reason for not calling upon them, which was, the irritated state of Ireland; and for this reason he desisted from doing any thing to exasperate: but if he was obliged, by a denial of these assertions, to produce his proofs of them, he must, in his own vindication, make them public; otherwise, he would content himself with placing his affidavits in the hands of the noble lord upon the woolsack, without issuing their contents. He called upon the marquis to advance

what he thought fit upon the subject.

The marquis of Downshire replied, that he was well convinced his lordship could have no improper motive for introducing it, though it would have given him peculiar satisfaction not to have it agitated here, having, he conceived, no right, as peers of a British house of parliament, to discuss the matter; and the discussion led to danger. Zeal had carried the noble lord too far in his resentments against the executive government. He was ready to admit, that some of the army, perhaps the undisciplined troops, might have done wrong; but he would contend it was not in consequence of their orders. Excesses had been committed, but these had been exaggerated. It was the case in the American war; and lord Moira might remember (for he had served in it with as much benefit to his country as honour to himself), how often the opposition newspapers abused the army under his lordship's command for outrages and cruelty; and when he now expressed his anger against military excesses, he might recollect how difficult it was to restrain them. Respecting coercive measures, he saw the necessity of them; nor would he disown, nor was he ashamed, of having been one of the first to advise them; the first to recommend to the executive government to issue the proclamation which was issued in the county of Down. He said then, and he said now, that the united Irishmen held forth the emancipation of the catholics, and a parliamentary reform, as a baiting horse, to deceive the vulgar and the ignorant. Very different sentiments were entertained by the respectable and reflecting people of Ireland.

Ireland. He never knew a catholic of education who was a friend to what was called *unqualified* emancipation, nor an enlightened protestant who was an advocate for radical reform. The curfew was the mere tolling of a bell, to warn the inhabitants to put out their lights at a certain hour in the evening, and that practice was enforced only in the proclaimed districts. As to the proclamation, which was so much complained of, as an engine of terror, it was no terror to the good; it was a protection to his majesty's subjects in their persons and properties, and agreeable to the wishes of all who did not seek to make Ireland a province of France.

The marquis then read some authentic documents, stating the imports and exports, excise and customs of Belfast. The customs in 1795 amounted to 101,000*l*, and the last decrease was no more than 7,073*l*. Belfast and Cork were the only towns which had suffered a deterioration in the receipt of their customs since the war commenced, whereas the city of Dublin had benefited by an increase of 8,000*l*. Limerick, Waterford, and Newry, with some other ports, had had a proportionate increase. The principal cause of decrease in Belfast was owing to a less quantity of rum having been imported lately, a circumstance which, as an Irishman, he rejoiced in, and considered as an important national advantage, since it was occasioned by the great increase of distilleries in consequence of the rapid improvement of agriculture.

He adverted again to the misbehaviour of the military; he lamented it, but exonerated the government from any blame, and general Lake in particular, who, he

said, was respected by the traitors themselves. As an instance of the provocations which frequently urged the military to act with violence, he mentioned the office of the newspaper printed in Belfast having been destroyed by soldiers belonging to a regiment which had been libelled by that paper. The soldiers carried an advertisement expressing their sorrow, their shame, and their contrition for what they had done. The printer threw the advertisement at them, and refused to insert it. Upon which they went to the office and destroyed all the materials, but they submitted immediately to their officers, and suffered the punishment due to their outrage. A regiment saw eight or ten of their comrades shot. These excesses, therefore, ought not to be ascribed to the executive government, who forbade, and who punished them.

Lord Moira then replied, that as the marquis had no intention to contradict the statement he had made, he was freed from the necessity of proceeding further in the proofs of his assertions. But he wished to know what was meant by coercion, if the case of Ireland could be compared with that of the Low Countries?

Here he was called to order by the earl of Caernarvon, who hoped to appear justified in interrupting him, and thus putting an end to this irregular proceeding by the opinion of both the lords engaged in the conversation. There was no need of any proofs. No person could doubt the earl of Moira being persuaded of the truth of the facts he had stated, and it appeared he had taken pains not to be deceived; but he trusted that his lordship would not think he had a right to force every difference of opinion

to an issue which was not necessary, and attended with danger.

The earl of Moira said, he had only one observation to make respecting the documents; that they did not relate to any casual excesses of the troops respecting which government could not be fairly blamed. They were of a different description: one particularly related to—Here his lordship was stopped by the duke of Athol, who disapproved of the further investigation, and wished their lordships to recollect that this was no question before the house, moving for the house to adjourn.

Lord Carlisle said there were two ways in which the information might be communicated; by reading the affidavits as part of the speech, or laying them on the table; but they could not be placed in the chancellor's hands during the sitting of the house.

Lord Moira replied, that if he laid them upon the table, they must be made public, and the consequence be, that they would be printed. He would, therefore, deposit them with the lord-chancellor as soon as the house adjourned.

Lord Grenville submitted it to the noble lord, whether, against his own opinion, against that of the marquis of Downshire, and against the judgment of the house, who were anxious to stop the agitation of so delicate and dangerous a subject, he would not forbear to utter another syllable?

The earl of Moira acquiesced, and the house adjourned.

Shortly after this interesting debate, the rebellion unfortunately broke out in Ireland; and a peer of the highest consequence in his native country introduced the subject to the British house of peers; but as the debates on that occasion

were not allowed to be published, we can only present our readers with the motion, and a brief statement of its fate.

On the 15th of June, the duke of Leinster, after a speech, in which, alluding to the late occurrences of Ireland, his feelings were greatly affected, moved an address to his majesty, humbly requesting,

“That his majesty would deign to direct the proper officer to lay before this house a full and ample statement of the facts and circumstances which had led to the disastrous affairs of Ireland, and of the measures which had hitherto been pursued for the purpose of averting such momentous evils. That, however alarming the discontents now prevailing in the sister kingdom were, we would not despair, but that the result of such discussion would enable us to assist his majesty, according to our constitutional duty, with some well-adapted remedy; such as might restore, in that distracted part of the British empire, confidence in the laws, by due administration of them, obedience to his majesty's government by a temperate use of its powers, and union amongst all descriptions of subjects in that kingdom.”

A long and animated debate followed, in which the motion was supported by the duke of Leinster, duke of Devonshire, earl of Suffolk, duke of Norfolk, lord Fitzwilliam, lord Moira, lord Holland, lord Belbrough, duke of Bedford, duke of Leeds; and opposed by lord Townsend, lord Carlisle, lord Grenville, lord Spencer, and the lord chancellor. Contents 18, non-contents 51.

For the protests on the motion for a committee to inquire into the state of Ireland being negatived, see

see the Public Papers, p. (184), &c. in this volume.

At the end of the debate, the following amendment was moved by the duke of Norfolk, which, after being incorporated in the main question, was also negatived:

“ And we farther feel it our duty to state to his majesty, that understanding the system of coercion has been enforced with a rigour which, if related in detail, would too severely wound his paternal feelings; that confessions had been extorted by torture—a practice held in abhorrence in every other state of Europe; to implore his majesty to direct an immediate change of system, as the only means of ending the calamities of that unhappy country, and to remove from their stations those persons under whose authority these atrocities have been perpetrated, and towards whom the afflicted people of Ireland can feel no sentiments but those of hatred and revenge.”

The subject was also agitated in the British house of commons; but, for the reason already assigned, we are unable to gratify the curiosity of the reader to its full extent.

On the 14th of June, Mr. Sheridan moved for “a committee to inquire into the state of Ireland,” which was negatived by a majority of 155 against 43.

On the following day, June 15, lord George Cavendish, after a short and emphatic speech, introduced the following series of resolutions, as a proper system to be adopted by the house for the salvation of Ireland;

“ Resolved,

“ 1. That whenever this house is called upon for supplies of men or money, to be provided by levies and taxes on our constituents, it is

our right and duty to watch over and control the purposes to which they are to be applied.

“ 2. That this house is ready to make every exertion in its power to enable his majesty to subdue all rebellion against his lawful authority, trusting he will temper severity with mercy, and never lose sight of that equitable policy which, by the redress of real grievances, may secure to him the loyalty and affection of his people.

“ 3. That it is the opinion of the house, although we shall be ready, at all times, by all just means, to maintain the unity of the British empire, and our connexion with Ireland as a part of it, yet we never can believe it is the wish of his majesty to support the principle of governing that country as a conquered and hostile country; a principle no less contrary to justice, than to the interests of the two kingdoms.

“ 4. That it is the duty of the ministers to advise his majesty, that he would be graciously pleased to repeat the recommendation which he made through the lord-lieutenant of Ireland to that kingdom in 1793—seriously to consider the situation of the Irish catholics, and consider it with liberality, for the purpose of cementing general union amongst his majesty's subjects in support of the established constitution.

“ 5. That such persons as have expressed their disapprobation of measures of concession, and under whose administration Ireland has been reduced to a situation so imminently dangerous to the interests and happiness of the empire, cannot be effectual channels of his majesty's royal grace and beneficent intentions towards their fellow subjects.”

His lordship concluded by moving the first resolution.

Lord John Russell seconded it.

Mr. Canning opposed it in a speech of more than an hour long, and moved the order of the day on the whole series of resolutions.

Mr. Fox then gave notice of a motion in case the resolutions should be negatived; Mr. Dundas followed Mr. Fox; Mr. William Grant, and Mr. Sergeant Adair, spoke against, Mr. Grey and Mr. Sheridan in support of them.

Ayes - - - - - 66

Noes - - - - - 212

Majority - - - 146

The other motions were then severally put and negatived.

Mr. Fox then moved the following proposition, which he had announced:

“Resolved,

“That this house (understanding it to be a matter of notoriety, that the system of coercion had been enforced in Ireland with a rigour shocking to humanity, and particularly that scourges and other tortures had been employed to extort confessions) is of opinion, that an immediate stop should be put to practices so disgraceful to the British name, and that our hopes of restoring tranquillity to Ireland must arise from a change of system, as far as relates to the executive government, together with a removal from their stations of those persons by whose advice those atrocities have been perpetrated, and towards whom the people of Ireland can feel no sentiments but of resentment and terror.”

The motion was supported by Mr. Sheridan and colonel Walpole, and opposed by Mr. Douglas, Mr.

Wilberforce, Mr. Adair, and Mr. Dundas.

Ayes - - - - - 62

Noes - - - - - 204

Majority - - - 112

On Tuesday, June 12, lord Grenville presented the following message from his majesty:

“G. R.

“His majesty, relying on the experienced zeal and affection of his faithful lords, and considering that it may be of the utmost importance to provide for such emergencies as may arise at this critical conjuncture, is desirous that this house will enable him to take all such measures as may be necessary to disapprove or defeat any enterprises or designs of his enemies, as the exigencies of affairs may require.”

His lordship was then proceeding to move an address of thanks to his majesty for his most gracious communication, when the earl of Suffolk rose, and requested the noble secretary of state to communicate to the house some idea of the object of the message, as the most alarming intelligence was, he understood, that day received from Ireland.

Lord Grenville said, he did not conceive it his duty to detail the news that might arrive from Ireland or any other country. As to the message he had just delivered, he could not see any necessary connexion between it and the affairs of Ireland.

The earl of Suffolk said, he thought it ill became ministers, who had brought all these calamities on the kingdom, unconstitutionally to shelter themselves under the king's name, and to refuse granting information to the house on a point that so nearly concerned them.

Lord Grenville made a short reply, and denied that he had attempted

ed to shelter himself under the king's name, in order to shrink from his responsibility as a minister. He should, however, persist in refusing the information called for by the noble lord.

The question was then put, and the address was voted *nonne dis-sentiente*.

Notwithstanding this conversation, it was generally understood that the message in question bore a relation to the affairs of Ireland; and, on the 18th of June, lord Grenville rose to present another message from his majesty, to acquaint the house, that the officers, non-commissioned officers, privates, &c. of different regiments of militia of this kingdom, had made to his majesty a voluntary tender of their services, to be employed in aid of the regular and militia forces in Ireland, for the suppression of the rebellion now unhappily existing in that country.

Lord Sydney rose, and moved their lordships, that the house be cleared of strangers, which was accordingly done.

A bill to meet the object of the message was produced by lord Grenville, and read a first time.

On Tuesday, June 19, strangers were again ordered to withdraw. The king's message, relative to the militia of Great Britain serving in Ireland, was then read, which gave rise to a long and spirited debate.

The earl of Caernarvon moved an amendment, upon which the house divided.

Contents - - - - - 13

Non contents - - - - - 45

Majority - - - - - 32

The house being resumed, the address was carried, and a bill, empowering his majesty to accept the offers of such regiments as should be willing to serve in Ireland was

brought in and read a first and second time, and passed through the committee.

The subject was introduced to the house of commons on the 19th of June, when a message was sent down from his majesty, of the same purport as that received by the lords.

Mr. secretary Dundas said, as he was not aware of any objection that could reasonably be urged against the measure that was recommended by the message, he would move "that an humble address be presented to his majesty, humbly thanking him for his most gracious communication to the house."

The address, which was, as usual, an echo of the message, being read, Mr. Nicholls said, he felt it his duty to oppose the address on a variety of grounds; for, if the address were adopted, the principle of the militia bill, as originally established, would be completely abandoned. The militia would be no longer a safeguard against the unconstitutional use which bad ministers might make of a standing army, in order to encroach on the rights and liberties of the people. The unconstitutional use, he observed, of a standing army was dreaded, and anxiously looked to by the jealousy of our ancestors; and it was the duty of the house not to assent to the measure proposed, as it would have a tendency totally to unhinge the old system, by making the militia a part of the standing army, with which it ought to be most religiously unconnected. We had been lately told, that it was necessary that this country should become an armed nation, in order to frustrate the attempts of the enemy to invade us. Was it then consistent with the safety of this kingdom, after a considerable part of the regular forces had been already sent out

out of it, to deprive it also of the protection of the militia, and to confine its protection to the new volunteer corps? Besides, the measure would be cruel and unjust to those who, wholly unsuspecting of any such intention, had entered *bona fide* into the militia service. There was another observation, to which he was anxious to draw the attention of the house; and this was, that the house had not as yet proceeded to any act, or given any pledge, with respect to the causes and origin of the rebellion in Ireland. What measures had been pursued in that respect were adopted by virtue of his majesty's prerogative: if the army now in Ireland was not able to arrest the progress of the rebellion, they must be opposed by a great body of men; and there were, consequently, great grounds for thinking that government had acted wrong in the system they had pursued against that kingdom. But upon this subject we were now left in the dark, nor would an inquiry into the discontents of that country be assented to by the ministers. After making some pointed remarks on the conduct of government in the removal of lord Fitzwilliam from Ireland, he concluded by saying, that the house ought to be fully acquainted with the merits of the question before they proceeded to give their support to the executive government, and fully to ascertain the causes of the discontents that had driven that unfortunate country into the present unnatural contest. Viewing the measure in these different lights, he said, he would give it his decided negative.

Mr. M. A. Taylor said, he could not but wish that ministers would condescend to state a few reasons why the constitution should be thus shook to the foundation. The mi-

litia was raised for the defence of this country; such was the nature of their engagement when they enlisted, that they should not be compelled to serve out of it. But it might be said, that in the present instance they were merely allowed to follow their own inclination. But if one regiment offers, their example would make it compulsory on every other to do the same, otherwise their courage and patriotism might be brought into question. For his part, he thought there was more courage in refusing to go than in going. In his capacity of an officer in the militia, he felt himself called upon to defend this country, and this country alone would he defend. The army had, he observed, already experienced a breach of faith in government by a number of men being draughted into different regiments in which they would not have enlisted; and the consequence of this breach of faith was, that government was at a loss how to recruit the army: however, they attempted to recruit it from the supplementary militia, but their attempts were generally unsuccessful. Here, he remarked, was another breach of faith. For though the present measures purported to rest on a voluntary offer, yet it was compulsory in truth and in fact. The right honourable secretary of state adduced no reason or argument in favour of the measure, only hinted that some military gentlemen had volunteered their service. The honourable gentleman next made some observations on the militia act, on which, he said, he should keep a steadfast eye, as the land-mark of the constitution, which says, "the militia shall not go out of the country." Therefore he felt it his duty to oppose the measure.

Mr. Laurence Palk also opposed the measure.

Mr.

Mr. Pierrepont said a few words against the measure, and contended that it was a most gross and flagrant violation of the constitution. And whoever of his majesty's ministers advised it, they had acted, in his opinion, with great boldness.

Mr. D. Ryder said, it was with the greatest astonishment he heard mention made of the boldness of ministers in advising the measure now under consideration. What then would not be said of their boldness, if, after having received such offers of voluntary service from a great body of men, ministers should have advised his majesty to repress such a spirit, and to repel such offers, at a time when a rebellion of the most heinous nature had reared its head? It was the interest of both countries that it should be immediately crushed. Could we quietly sit down and see our fellow subjects daily massacred in the most barbarous and shocking manner? He remarked, that as great a part of the regular troops as could be spared had already been sent over. Did gentlemen apprehend no danger for this country? Should it be left without a due proportion of regular troops? He was, at a loss, he said, to see the force of the constitution. A objection that was urged against the measure, was its unconstitutionality to employ the militia in Ireland, when they volunteered their service, than to employ them in England? After making some other remarks, he concluded by expressing his hearty approbation of the measure.

Lord William Russell said, the honourable gentleman (Mr. Ryder) had expressed some surprise that ministers should be accused of boldness in advising a measure like the present; but was it not boldness to propose any thing that sub-

verted the principles of the militia laws. The militia was intended to defend the liberties of the country, and for this only were they established. But what was the nature of the service they were now to be inured to? They were to be sent for the purpose of forcing upon Ireland a system of government, which nine tenths of its inhabitants disapproved and abhorred. Nor would it be a matter of choice with them as pretended, but compulsory. He had often disapproved of the pernicious system that had been long pursued in Ireland; which, in fact, had driven the unfortunate people of that country to such extremities; nor would he be now so blind to the example he had before him as to vote a single man for the maintenance of such a system.

Mr. Banks said, though he could not approve of the measure proposed, he could not but reprobate the language held by the noble lord who had just sat down. For his part, he thought that no rebellion ever was more unprovoked than that now raging in Ireland. However, he was afraid if the principle of sending the militia to Ireland, for the defence of England, were once admitted, there was no species of warfare in which they might not be employed. They might be sent to Orkney or Quiberon, on the ground that such measures were in their nature defensive. He concluded, with moving an amendment, to leave out all but the two first paragraphs; to express the high sense the house entertained of the zeal and patriotism of those who had offered to come forward with their services; to assure his majesty that the question suggested in the message was one of the utmost consequence,

ON

on which the house were not in the present circumstances prepared to give an opinion.

The secretary at war said, that the honourable gentleman who had just sat down had given more the appearance of argument to what he maintained than any of the gentlemen on the other side. One honourable gentleman had obscurely developed those principles on which the sending an additional force to Ireland was opposed; and the noble lord, who had spoke last but one, had proved an ample commentator on what that honourable member had only partly disclosed. The noble lord had said, that he would not vote one man to assist the government of Ireland in subjugating the people of that country. Was not this the expression of a wish that the rebellion might not be suppressed? (a cry of, hear! hear! from the opposite benches). Mr. Windham said, it was not by any means his wish to misrepresent the noble lord; and, if he had done so, the opportunity would presently occur of his being set right. It had been suggested that the house ought to pause before it agreed to the address; but were honourable gentlemen to pause, while an actual rebellion existed in one corner of the empire, while the king's troops and rebels were fighting, and not assist the former to bring the latter to a sense of duty? His honourable friend (Mr. Banks) had admitted that the militia might be reduced, and wished that a corps might be formed from it, consisting of such as were really disposed to volunteer their services against the rebels; however, if this were once done, the alleged constitutional check would cease; that if the militia was originally a check,

any reduction of it would diminish that check. The objection that the militia had been originally raised merely for the protection of the country, and never to be sent out of it, did not appear to him stronger than might be urged in the case of the fencible corps, who had been raised on similar terms. It had been said, that no necessity existed for sending the militia to Ireland; but Mr. Windham said, the house were in possession of documents sufficient to show that Ireland was in imminent danger; and the disaster to England would be great if Ireland was lost. With regard to the supposition that many people would probably not again enter into the militia, if this measure was adopted, he could only say that he thought it probable; but even supposing it possible, he should not set that against the salvation of Ireland.

Lord William Russell said a few words in explanation.

Mr. Sheridan asserted, the motion which had just been submitted to the house was the most extraordinary in its nature that ever was heard. The right honourable gentleman, however, who moved the address, seemed to have considered the measure proposed as one to which no objection could possibly be framed; and he introduced it as one which demanded neither apology nor explanation. It was impossible to forget how lately the right honourable gentleman came down to the house, and stated the country to be in imminent danger, which required the exertion of every hand and heart for its defence. It was somewhat extraordinary then, that, after that statement, he should call upon the house to give their consent to strip the country of the militia forces, on
which

which it relied for its defence. From the lord's bill it appeared, that the militia force, which it was thus intended to send to Ireland, was 12,000; but if such additional force was wanted, why not send all the regular troops which were to be found before the constitutional principle was violated? Why not send 2,000 of the guards in town; and instead of 12,000 send only 10,000? It had been asked by a right honourable gentleman, what would have been thought of ministers if they had concealed the offer made by the militia. If ministers could have done what they now propose, without consulting the house, he would venture to say that they would have heard nothing of the offer. Although they might hold in contempt the advice of the house, they were not quite bold enough to act in violation of the law, which he hoped would still be found too powerful for them.

Mr. Sheridan next made some remarks on the expression of his honourable friend, who had said he would not vote a single man for the purpose of subjugating the oppressed people of Ireland; great stress had been laid upon this as being unconstitutional, but surely it was neither unconstitutional nor unparliamentary for a member of this house to say that he could not give his aid to any system of measures, or any acts of the executive government, till he had examined and approved of the grounds on which they were justified? The right honourable gentleman expressed a doubt whether at all the gentlemen in opposition were willing to give their support to extinguish the rebellion in Ireland. "I am aware (said Mr. Sheridan) that the right honourable gentleman is desirous to lead us into slippery ground. I would ask

him, whether he means to say, that in every case this house is bound to take part with a king of Ireland, and an Irish house of commons, against the people of Ireland? Will he maintain that proposition generally? This house is not bound to sanction the injustice, and to strengthen the oppression which the legislature of the sister kingdom, however independent, might be pleased to inflict." Mr. Sheridan then went into the grounds of the dispute between the government and the people of Ireland, and remarked, that under the government of lord Fitzwilliam the people exhibited the most fervent and sincere loyalty; but, after being deprived of the government in which they would confide, and thrown in the hands of a ruler they detested, it was not to be wondered at that they should feel emotions of indignation and discontent. "Every man (said he) in this house, too well recollects the subscription set on foot in London to support the industrious manufacturers in Ireland wholly without employment; of this description there were from 30 to 40,000 men in Ireland: such was the situation of so many individuals; and when charity was wearied out, unable longer to supply their wants, it was not the poison of French principles, but the want of bread that seduced them." But to return to the measure, it had been said by some honourable gentlemen that the service of the militia was voluntary, Mr. Sheridan, on the contrary, contended that it was not. The case of the fencibles was mentioned as in point, but nothing could be more different. The fencibles were raised on certain conditions between the individuals, authorised by ministers: the militia was raised not by contract between individuals,

duals, but on a compact of law; and it was vain to talk of a thing being voluntary where no real option was left. "We are now called upon (said he) for our last military stake, the militia; and it is natural to ask, where we are to look for defence? Is the danger, to which the public attention was so forcibly directed, less now than it was? Before the trials at Maidstone took place, we were informed by a right honourable gentleman opposite (Mr. Dundas) that dangers of the utmost magnitude existed, and he called upon men to forget their political divisions, and unite in the great object of national defence. Many of those who had been in the habit of opposing ministers showed a zealous disposition to support the great object of national defence; and in many cases they have been answered by a behaviour highly discreditable to ministers." As an instance, he mentioned the case of his honourable friend (general Tarleton), who manfully offered his services wherever they could be employed. Notwithstanding, however, they were rejected with contempt. After remarking some instances of the same kind, he concluded with concurring in the amendment.

Mr. Dundas said, that he had no reason to regret that he did not detain the house in making his motion, by endeavouring to explain the reasons for making it; neither should he even now have thought it necessary to say much, but for some personal allusions. With respect to the idea, that this measure was unconstitutional, upon the ground that the militia was established as a check upon a standing army, he would only observe, that it was not upon this ground that the measure was moved, or

adopted. Relative to what he had said on a former occasion, respecting calling on all descriptions of people to prepare against the attack of the enemy, he was ready to be examined upon what he then said, and wished it might be compared with what he now proposed. He admitted at once, that at that time he distinctly stated, in plain language, that the salvation of this country depended entirely on its own exertions; and he would now say, that twelve thousand of the militia ought to be sent to Ireland; and that was the resolution he intended to propose, should the house agree to the address which he had moved. He begged gentlemen to recollect the change which had taken place since the time he made the declaration that this country must make great preparations against the enemy. At the beginning of this year our militia were about 36,000 men, now they were 100,000 men. At that time we had cavalry forces of about 7,000 men, we now had about 20,000: he should be relieved, therefore, from any charge of inconsistency, in having at one time said it was necessary for the people to prepare for the safety of the country, and now to propose to send out of the country part of its force. All he desired gentlemen to allow was, that there was now an existing rebellion in Ireland: and of what nature was that rebellion? The honourable gentleman himself would not venture to tell him that there did not exist a great body of low people, who wished to separate that country from this, through the arms of France. What consistency, then, was there between the observations and the proposition of the honourable gentleman, "that Ireland should not be a possi-

of France." Need he say, that to give to France Holland, Flanders, and all the places upon the continent opposite to our coasts, was not so dangerous to Great Britain as if they had a port in Ireland. To send troops to Ireland, therefore, to quell the rebellion there, was in other words sending troops to prevent the French from obtaining a port there; and that was in reality defending Great Britain. Gentlemen called for documents to know that there was a rebellion in Ireland, but perhaps they wanted to know whether it was a justifiable rebellion. Did they mean to wait to settle this point until Ireland should become a province of France? for that might be the effect of their opposition to this measure being successful. Some gentlemen had wished to know whether there were not regular forces in this country that might be sent instead of the militia. The militia force, he had already stated, was more than double what it was a short time ago; nor had he any scruple in saying, that if any part could be spared, it was out of the militia forces, because they could be most easily supplied and recruited. Mr. Dundas admitted, that the measure before the house was liable to many inconveniences, and that he felt great pain in being compelled to bring down the message. He admitted the truth of what had been said, viz. that many would go under this measure either from false pride or shame; but he hoped the house would feel with him, that, of all things, the rebellion in Ireland was the greatest inconvenience. With respect to what had been said of general Tarleton, he had said nothing about the propriety of employing him; however he had no doubt, if he was employed, he would

soon forget his politics, and become a very good officer.

He did not recollect that there were any more arguments for him to answer upon this occasion; the simple question was, whether the house would take upon itself the responsibility of letting the rebellion go uncrushed, when they had an opportunity of crushing it?—Those who thought they ought not to allow his majesty to have that advantage without examining into circumstances, and who chose to take upon themselves the responsibility of risking the fate of Ireland, and eventually of England itself, would give to his majesty advice accordingly.—Thank God, he was not of that opinion!

Mr. Sheridan said a few words in explanation, relative to what he had remarked respecting Ireland becoming a port of France.

Mr. Tierney said, if ever there existed a minister in the country who more than another should mourn for the country, it was the present: he should come to the house clothed in sackcloth and ashes, to find himself obliged, in the fifth year of the war, and after an expenditure of above two hundred millions of money, to bring down to that house such a proposition as the present. He then adverted to the circumstance of there being no official communication to the house of the rebellion, before parliament was called upon to take such an important step; this he considered as a serious omission. He said that the right honourable gentleman could not be at a loss for the form of communication; for the case of communicating the American affair to the house from the throne was directly in point; and said that those proceedings were such as should have been adopted

adopted on the present occasion. A week was then allowed before the king's message was taken into consideration; but how different was the mode adopted in the present instance. No communication whatever was made to parliament of the existence of the rebellion. If Ireland was so situated, as that the presence of this body was essential to its preservation, it became necessary for him to watch the interests of England. He should not, he trusted, be suspected of a disposition to separate the interests of the two countries; but, if the interest of the one clashed with that of the other, it became him to recollect that he was a representative of England. If the honourable gentleman should attempt to convince him, that the measures pursued in Ireland originated in the agency of France, he would have great difficulty, as he could not conscientiously believe that France had any share in them. Not having the opportunity of reference to official documents, he could only form his opinion from such information as he was able to collect. For instance, he found that lord Fitzwilliam was of a different opinion, and that his lordship had not formed his opinion from the consequences of the measures which had been pursued; but that he now referred to letters written three years ago, in which he urged the necessity of concession to the catholics; and said, he should feel himself as much disposed to give credit to the noble lord, as to the statement of the right honourable gentleman. Mr. Tierney next read the preamble to the militia act; and observed, that the force was intended not only as a body for the defence, but that it formed a part of the constitution

of the country, from which the greatest advantages were derived. Where was a substitute to be found for this body? It was evident, he said, from the act, that the men, if disposed, should not be permitted to leave the kingdom, as the tenor of their oath was to serve faithfully in Great Britain. It was obvious, that a militia, embodied for five years, was sufficient for all domestic purposes; and, as there were 3,500 guards, he thought the militia were competent to do their duty. Mr. Tierney then reprobated the conduct of administration; and concluded by expressing his determination not to support, by a single man or a guinea, a government so administered as that of Ireland, until satisfied that the rebellion proceeded from French interference, operating on the discontented in that country; nor would he send 12,000 of the militia of this country to the assistance of men, whose conduct, he said, had been so scandalously disgraceful.

Mr. Wilberforce could not be satisfied with giving a silent vote on the measure, partly on account of its singularity, and partly because his sentiments and feelings did not exactly coincide with those which any gentleman had expressed in the course of the present debate. The honourable gentleman who had just spoken had strangely and most unwarrantably contended, that the militia-men, by the engagement which they took on entering into that body, to serve anywhere in Great Britain, were precluded from serving out of Great Britain, even by their own consent. What sort of an argument was it, that by engaging to do a particular thing, or up to a certain extent, a person precluded himself from doing something more, or beyond that

that extent, if he chose it. He felt it, however, his duty, to declare that he considered the measure as being but too likely to be productive of lasting injury to that most excellent institution the militia. Strong as he felt this objection to be, yet what was to be done? A rebellion to a most alarming extent had broken out in Ireland, and continued to rage, even with increasing violence. If it had grown

to a maxim of unquestionable authority, "in war, he who gains time gains every thing;" in the case of an insurrection in a country, circumstanced like Ireland, the maxim was still more clear, and of infinitely more cogent application. Gentlemen argued against the measure, because they wished that conciliatory measures should be tried rather than coercive, and that the effusion of blood should be spared. It was precisely these very considerations, Mr. Wilberforce declared, which urged him most powerfully to support the present measure. The force actually in Ireland, at present, might perhaps be sufficient in the end to reduce the rebels to subjection; but it could only be after a long and severe struggle; and if the house wished to dispirit the rebels, and to induce them to desist from their efforts, they must strengthen the arms of government by powerful reinforcements, in order to convince them that all further resistance would be fruitless. Mr. Wilberforce said he was convinced, that the measure was in itself objectionable, yet he must give it his decided support on the ground of necessity, and still more on the principle of its being calculated to spare the effusion of human blood.

Lord George Cavendish said a few words against sending the mi-

litia to Ireland, as being entirely unconstitutional.

Sir W. Pulteney agreed with gentlemen on both sides, that this was a question of great importance, and must have a great effect on the militia in future. The rebellion, however, was not owing to jacobins; and he was afraid that sending the militia was now unavoidable; but this was no excuse for those who brought us into the embarrassment.

Mr. Manning was anxious that the measure should be carried into effect with as much attention to constitutional principles as possible. He wished that his majesty should be empowered to offer a bounty to such militia-men as should choose to enter, to fill up the vacancies in skeleton regiments; that the militia-men should have permission so to do; and that they should receive bounty. Thus not a moment's delay would be occasioned in sending troops to Ireland; and thus, having raised 12,000 men constitutionally, it would be easy to fill up the vacancies in the militia from the supplementary corps. He should, however, vote for the amendment proposed by Mr. Banks.

Mr. Dundas rose to explain, but was prevented by the speaker.

Mr. Rider said a few words, after which the house divided on the question for the amendment.

Ayes	-	47
Noes	-	118

Majority 71

The original motion was then put and carried.

Wednesday, June 20. On the order for reading a second time the bill to enable his majesty to accept the services of 12,000 men of the militia to go to Ireland being read,

General Tarleton opposed the

L bill.

bill. He thought, that before the country was stripped of the militia, means should be taken for the defence of this country, the situation of which was as critical as Ireland. He entered into a statement of the military force of the kingdom, and concluded, that the force to which the defence of the whole coast of England and Scotland, arsenals, &c. was committed, were only 37,000 men, who had carried firelocks a year. The volunteer corps were not in such a state of discipline as to be effective, and the provisional cavalry were not to be relied upon.

Mr. Dundas made a short reply, and contended, that the volunteer corps which had come forward to offer their services, had been pronounced, by officers of the militia, to be in such a state as to be effective, if necessity required; and the provisional cavalry were, in general, a corps which, in case of emergency, might prove of the greatest advantage to the country.

Mr. Jekyll said, in obedience to the dictates of his own conscience,

and in compliance with the duty which he owed to the people of England, he must make all the stand he was able against a measure which flew in the face of the constitution; for no information had been laid before the house to guide its judgment on the propriety of the motion. And until proper documents were laid before the house, to prove that an unnatural and wicked rebellion raged in Ireland, how could we know but that the people of Ireland had a right to make this resistance—(A murmur of disapprobation arose, and Mr. Secretary Dundas moved that the standing order for excluding strangers be enforced, upon which the speaker ordered the gallery to be cleared). The debate continued for some time; after which the house divided on the question for the second reading of the bill.

Ayes	-	43
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Noes	-	11
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Majority	-	32
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The bill was afterwards read third time and passed.

CHAP. VII.

Affairs of Ireland. The late Rebellion connected with remote Causes. Brief Sketch of the History of Ireland, as relating to these Causes. National Character of the Irish Peasantry. Concessions made to the Roman Catholics. Further Concessions required. Ill Policy of Lord Fitzwilliam's Administration. Republican Faction in Ireland. Society of United Irishmen—Its Institution. Views of the Society. Theobald Wolfe Tone. Constitution and Laws of the Society. Affiliated System. Orange Men. Defenders. Convention Act. Connexion formed by the United Men with France. Mission of Jackson. His Trial and Conviction. Trial of Stone. Flight of Tone, Rowan, and others. United Irishmen joined by Mr. O'Connor. Accredited Minister from the Irish Directory received at Paris. Invasion of Ireland. Why the French were not supported by the Peasantry. Military Organisation of United Irishmen. Insurrection Act. New Plan of Invasion. Intended Insurrection. Conspiracy in Part developed to Government. Reports of Secret Committees. Severities exercised in Ireland. Efforts made by the
Whigs

Whigs to conciliate the hostile Parties. Miserable State of Ireland at this Crisis. Troops embarked on board the Dutch Fleet for the Invasion of Ireland. Wretched Policy of the French. Disturbances in Ireland. Town of Cahir ravaged by the Insurgents. Proclamation. New Attempt to conciliate made by the Whig-Party—Ill-received by the United Irishmen. Mr. Arthur O'Connor. Trial of O'Connor, Binns, &c. Execution of O'Coighly. Destruction of "The Press." Discovery of the grand Conspiracy. Linnier Delegates, and some of the Directory, apprehended. Death of Lord Edward Fitzgerald. Plot for a general Insurrection—Discovered and defeated. The Rebellion breaks out in various Places—Rebels repulsed at Naas—Take the Town of Prosperous—Defeated at Kilkullen—At Rathfarnham—At Tallagh-hill—At Carlow—At Kildare. Progress of the Rebellion in the South. Cork Militia defeated. Battle of Enniscorthy. Rebels advance and take Wexford. Mr. B. B. Harvey appointed Commander in Chief of the Wexford Rebels. Battle of Ross. Horrid Massacres by the Rebels. Rebels repulsed at Gorey and Newtown Barry. Col. Walpole defeated and killed by the Rebels. Rebels repulsed at Arklow. Battle of Vinegar-hill. Wexford retaken. Execution of Rebels there. Ill Conduct and Cruelty of Rebels. Rebellion in the North. Antrim taken by Rebels, and retaken by General Nugent. Battle of Ballinahinch. Lord Cornwallis appointed Lord Lieutenant. Conciliatory Measures. General Amnesty. Trial of J. and H. Sheares, and other Conspirators. Submission and voluntary Confession of Arthur O'Connor, and other State-prisoners. Justice and Equity of Lord Cornwallis's Administration. Bill of Attainder. Final Dispersion of the Rebels. Invasion of Ireland by General Humbert. General Lake defeated. Lord Cornwallis advances to attack the French—And defeats them at Ballinamuck. Napper Tandy lands in Ireland—Returns. Defeat of the Grand Expedition for the Invasion by Sir J. B. Warren. Capture, Trial, and Death, of Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone. Entire Suppression of the Irish Rebellion. Reflexions.

THE fatal contest which had been long expected, and long feared, in Ireland, broke forth this year, with all the horrors which naturally accompany such an event. To understand the nature and foundation of the disturbances, it will be necessary to carry our views back to the earlier periods of the Irish history, and to consider the whole of the predisposing causes in a connected series.

It has been said that history in general is no other than the melancholy record of human crimes and human calamities. To no history can the remark be more applicable than to that of this unhappy kingdom. Previous to its subjugation

to England, this island was the constant theatre of bloody and destructive wars between the petty sovereigns, who exercised a precarious, but tyrannical authority over the different provinces; and from that period few and fleeting were the intervals in which the country was not agitated by inveterate and cruel struggles to regain that imaginary independence, which the natives never failed to lament they had lost.

It has been a matter of dispute between the historians of the two countries, whether the sovereignty of Ireland was acquired by Henry II. by conquest or by cession. The dispute is little interesting in itself,

and is not easy to be determined. Ireland, distracted by intestine divisions and contests, saw a foreign force introduced by one of its native princes, who had been expelled from his sovereignty for his licentiousness and tyranny. Supported by the party of the exiled prince, the English found but a feeble resistance to their arms; and the king of Leinster was reinstated, partly by their assistance, but more by the weakness and disunion of his adversaries. Henry found the road made plain and easy to him by the valour and ability of Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, the first adventurer who undertook the restoration of the exiled prince; and the monarch of Ireland was happy to purchase for himself the peaceful enjoyment of his dignity and dominions by a compact; in consequence of which, he was to be invested with all the rights of sovereignty, as the vassal of Henry; for which he consented to do him homage, and to pay, as an acknowledgment of his dependence, a small annual tribute. A certain part of the kingdom was ceded to the English adventurers: this part was governed by the English usages; and an officer of the king of England presided over its government, under the title of lord deputy, while the rest of the country remained under its native princes, and subject to its original (Brehon) laws.

Not content with the boundary, which, by the first treaty, was assigned them, the English settlers gradually extended their territories, by encroachments and conquests, on their less warlike neighbours; but it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that the country could be said to be completely subjected to the English yoke. In the course of these transactions, however, many

of the native Irish were dispossessed of the inheritance of their ancestors; they, consequently, regarded the new settlers as intruders and plunderers: insurrections were frequent; and each insurrection produced new forfeitures: and the causes of animosity were multiplied, in proportion to the efforts which were made for the recovery of their lost rights.

At the celebrated period of the reformation, a new cause of disunion was generated from that strong attachment to their ancient religion, which forms a striking feature in the character of the native Irish. The agreement in religious sentiment formed a bond of attachment between such of the English settlers as refused to conform to the religion of the court, and their Irish brethren. National prejudices were forgotten in those of religion. The catholic descendants of the first adventurers now intermixed, more freely than they had done before, with a people whom they had treated as their vassals. Their origin was forgotten; they became naturalised to the soil, to the manners and customs of its inhabitants. The character of protestant, or of papist, formed at length the great line of distinction: these terms were equivalent to those of English and Irish; and even the principal marks to distinguish the alien from the native.

Hence, in every struggle that occurred for the recovery of their national independence, and the property of their ancestors, religion was deeply blended with civil claims; and the re-establishment of the catholic faith was equally an object with the restoration of their estates.

A connexion with the Catholic powers of the continent was a necessary effect of this harmony in religious

ligious sentiment. Thus, when Hugh earl of Tyrone, in the reign of Elizabeth, formed the daring project of erecting Ireland into an independent sovereignty, he was at first secretly, and afterwards openly, assisted by Spain. The insurrection is described, by a declaration of the privy council, as "an universal Irish rebellion, to shake off all English government."—Forty years had scarcely elapsed, from the period in which this rebellion was suppressed, before it was succeeded by another, more general, if possible, and more dreadful. The insurrection of 1641 is written in characters of blood, and marked out for the horror and amazement of posterity. Religion was not only a motive, but the avowed pretext of the insurgents. Even the catholics of the pale, the descendants of the first English adventurers, took an active part in the insurrection: and that they acted in concert with the catholic powers on the continent can scarcely be doubted. The leaders of the rebellion were publicly assisted by money from the papal treasury; and an accredited legate from his holiness occupied a seat in the convention of Kilkenny. On the suppression of this rebellion, the forfeitures were many, and were confirmed by the act of settlement, passed in the reign of Charles II.; these were succeeded by others, which took place after the memorable stand made by the catholics of Ireland, in favour of a popish monarch, in the year 1690; and while their religious prejudices continued to be invaded, a large proportion of the natives, were deprived of their inheritances; and, to the zeal of bigotry, the sense of supposed injustice was added, to stimulate the

passions of indignation and revenge, and the bonds of retaliation.

In the Irish, these passions, with respect to what is termed the protestant ascendancy, are hereditary. The protestants are still considered as intruders, who have plundered the natives of their property, and overturned their religious establishment. Many causes have co-operated with this sentiment, to render the lower classes untractable and desperate; and an occasion or excuse has seldom presented itself, without an evident inclination on their parts to throw off the British dominion. The peasantry of Ireland are ignorant, savage, extremely poor, and, we must in candour add, in some measure oppressed. The grazing system, and the monopoly of farms, have precluded many families from a decent and independent subsistence, and reduced them to a precarious and dependent situation. The outrages of the Whiteboys, in the year 1762, and for about ten years succeeding, have been attributed to this circumstance. But when it is remembered, that the exaction of tythes was the alleged plea of the insurgents, and that all of them who suffered were of the Catholic persuasion, we shall not be accused of partiality in saying, that religion must have been at least one of the principal motives.

The repeal of Poyning's law, which established the independence of the Irish parliament, and the concession of a free trade, which were granted to the Irish in the year 1782, it was hoped, would have satisfied the inhabitants at large, and would have established the island in peace and prosperity. In that arrangement, however, which was principally effected by

the protestant interest, the catholics were not invested with the full rights and privileges to which they conceived themselves entitled, though the penal statutes against them were repealed, and though they were placed upon an equal footing with protestants, with respect to the tenure of their landed property.

In a former volume we gave a distinct account of the further concessions which were made to the catholics of Ireland in the year 1793. By that arrangement, they were invested with the same privileges as his majesty's protestant subjects, except only the being eligible to the great offices in the state, about 32 in number, and the right of sitting and voting in both houses of parliament. Whether these few points were worth a contest on either side, it is not our parts to determine. It was said, on the one part, that to admit the Roman catholics to the principal offices of the executive government, and to seats in the legislature, would be to lay the foundation of a revolution, not only in the ecclesiastical establishment, but even in the government; that not only the property of the church, but all which was derived from the authority of Great-Britain; every thing possessed by the protestants, as the inheritance of their ancestors, would be forfeited. The proceedings of the catholic convention in 1645, and the still more violent and tyrannical acts of the catholic parliament in 1689, were triumphantly referred to, and the inveterate and unsubdued spirit of the Irish papists were alleged as reasons against investing them with too much power. It was answered to these reasons, that the appointment of the executive officers of

the state rested entirely with his majesty and his lieutenant, and that there was little danger that persons hostile to the establishment should meet with their approbation. With respect to the right of sitting in parliament, it was argued, that still the majority of electors were of the protestant faith, and that, consequently, a majority of catholic members was not likely to be returned.

In the year 1795, earl Fitzwilliam, as we have related in a preceding volume, was appointed to the government of Ireland; and he, according to his own statement, went with full powers from the British ministry to satisfy all the claims of the Roman catholics. Whether that was a wise measure, or not, this is neither the proper time nor the proper place to discuss. However that may be, it can never be sufficiently regretted that the hopes of the catholics were elevated only to experience the bitterness of disappointment. The recall of earl Fitzwilliam certainly created much discontent in Ireland, and was at least a dangerous circumstance in the hands of the disaffected party.

Thus were the minds of the Irish peasantry prepared by ancient prejudice, and what they considered as recent injury, for a state of insubordination; and, in such a state of things, it was natural to expect that Ireland should be in some degree affected by the momentous changes which were taking place on the continent of Europe. A considerable faction had existed almost from the first dawn of the French revolution, secretly attached to republican principles, and who impatiently desired a participation of that equal liberty, which they erroneously believed was to be the fruits

fruits of the contest in which the Gallic reformers were engaged. Besides these, there were many ambitious and disappointed men, who are ever ready to join the standard of revolt; and there was a still larger body, who saw defects in their constitution, which they persuaded themselves a little virtue and energy in the people would lead the government to reform. The catholics were still the most numerous; and, on that account, the most powerful part of the nation: these it was necessary to conciliate; and the party contrived to implicate their own claims with those of a people, who were to be their principal agents in effecting their designs.

The project of a parliamentary reform, and what they chose to term catholic emancipation, or a full restoration to the catholics of all the privileges of Irish subjects, were the ostensible principles upon which the society, since become so famous under the name of UNITED IRISHMEN, was formed. It was instituted in the year 1791; and a code of laws for its regulation was drawn up by a man as much distinguished by his talents as by his unfortunate and premature death, Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone. This gentleman was but little indebted to the adventitious circumstances of birth or fortune for his celebrity and influence. He was the son of a tradesman in Dublin: he was educated in Trinity-college, and brought up to the bar. From inclination, and probably from principle, he attached himself to the popular party, and was the leading person in the establishment of the society in question. The constitution of this society evinced much ability and political knowledge; and it certainly was well calculated to

effect, not merely its ostensible objects, but even a separation from the British connexion; which, there is reason to think, was meditated by some of the leading members, latterly at least; though it is but just to acquit the great majority of the members of any treasonable design in the first institution of the society. The first and principal article expressed, that "the society was constituted for the purpose of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a community of rights, and a union of power among Irishmen of every religious persuasion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legislature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." Each particular society, or division, was originally to consist of thirty-six members, which number was afterwards reduced to twelve. Each of these elected their own treasurer and secretary; and also appointed delegates to what was called the baronial committee: to which function of delegates, by a subsequent regulation, the secretaries succeeded *ex officio*. And the lower baronial committee consisted of five secretaries, who were invested with the sole direction and superintendence of the five societies which they represented. From each lower baronial committee one member was delegated to an upper baronial committee, which also superintended all the lower baronial committees within the county or district. One or more delegates from each upper baronial committee formed a county committee; and two or three from each county committee formed the provincial committee. An executive directory was chosen for the whole kingdom by the provincial committees, and consisted of five persons, who were only known to the

secretaries of the provincial committees, who were the scrutineers of the ballot. The directory exercised an almost unlimited authority over the whole body of the union, though their names and persons were utterly unknown to the members, who gave implicit obedience to an invisible authority. An oath was administered to every new member on his admission to the society, which pledged him to "persevere in endeavouring to form a brotherhood of affection among Irishmen of every religious persuasion;" and also in the obtaining of "a full and adequate representation of the people of Ireland." The oath further engaged him, that neither hopes, fears, rewards, or punishments, should ever induce him, directly or indirectly, to inform or give evidence against any member or members of that and similar societies.

Thus constituted, the society, for the first two or three years after its institution, by its circumspection, escaped the vigilance, or by its insignificance failed to excite the suspicions of the government. Its organisation was gradually perfected, and proselytes were daily brought over to the cause. It was in the spring of 1792, that what is termed the affiliated system, or a complete connexion and correspondence between the united men throughout the kingdom commenced; and to complete the arrangement, emissaries were dispatched from Dublin, and from the province of Ulster, to all parts of the country. Whatever might be the views, however, of a very few of the leaders, it does not appear that the majority of the members had at this period, or for some time after, the least intention or expectation of effecting a change beyond a reform of parliament, and

what they termed catholic emancipation.

Since the dreadful massacre of 1641, and the subsequent civil war in 1689 and 1690, the jealousies and the fears of the protestants of Ireland, and those of the established church in particular, have ever been awake against every design which appeared to favour the catholic cause. The extension of privileges, which was granted to the papists in 1793, was but ill-received by a large body of the protestants; and it is remarkable, that the speech of the Irish chancellor on that occasion predicts, that the concessions which were then made would not be satisfactory; but that, on the contrary, "the avowed object of Irish reformers, and catholic emancipators, was separation from Great Britain." It is not our wish to enter into any party disputes, or to make a panegyric on the leaders of any party; but common candor extorts from us the confession, that the speech to which we allude is replete with historical learning, and judicious argument; and it may be read as containing, we believe, a just summary of the principles upon which the protestant party in Ireland have acted. Impressed, therefore, with the apprehension (whether well or ill-founded, it is not our business to inquire), that to extend the powers and privileges of the catholics was to put weapons in the hands of men, who would only use them to the overthrow of the civil and ecclesiastical establishments, and alarmed at the proceedings of the united Irishmen, some of the more sanguine of the supporters of what is called the protestant ascendancy, formed counter-associations. With more zeal than judgment, they assumed the external marks of party distinction; and, as the memory of

William

William was justly held in veneration by the protestants of Ireland, as their great deliverer, the party were soon distinguished by the name of orange-men. In the county of Armagh, where religious feuds had long been carried on with peculiar asperity, the two parties entered into actual and violent contentions; and, we fear, whatever might be the spirit or the conduct of the papists, the orange-men did not conduct themselves with temper, and with charity. They are charged with outrages, which, if true, would disgrace any cause; with burning houses, and with a settled plan for expelling all the catholic inhabitants from the county and the province; to seize the arms of the papists was the plea, and, probably, the motive under which these excesses were committed; but it is seldom that party rage confines itself within the measures absolutely necessary for self-defence.

The religious feuds, which in this manner originated in the county of Armagh, are said to have given rise to that description of people who have been stigmatised by the name of *defenders*. The orange-men had been active in depriving the papists of their arms; and the latter party retaliated by plundering by night the houses of the protestants, ransacking every quarter for arms, and murdering those who had the spirit to resist. The defenders were bound to secrecy and union by a solemn oath, and acted in all their predatory excursions with the same alertness and vigilance which had distinguished the white-boys a few years before.

In the mean time, the Irish government, now seriously alarmed, passed an act against the holding of seditious meetings, or conventions,

for any political purpose, without the sanction of the magistrates. An act was also passed against administering the defender's oath; and many of these deluded people were, from time to time, apprehended, tried, and convicted, at the different assizes for their respective counties. The united Irishmen appear to have had no immediate connexion with the defenders; yet through their secretary, it is alleged, they raised money to support and defend some of them upon their trials.

The French government, from the first of the contest with this country, we may indeed say in the very commencement of it, seem to have been remarkably ignorant of the state of the people, and the government with whom they had to contend. They have repeatedly fallen into the error, which some, indeed, of the tory party in Great Britain have held or countenanced, that all who disapprove, in any degree, of the conduct of ministers in Great Britain are disposed to a revolution. No error can be more flagrant or more fatal either to be received by an enemy, or cherished by the administration. Of the persons hostile to ministry in Britain, some are so upon mere party motives, that is, attached to the men who wish to supplant the present ministers, and to occupy their stations; and it is not likely that persons of this description should be desirous of a revolution, which must defeat the very hopes on which they act, and involve the majority and minority in one common ruin. Some again are the remains of the old whig party in this kingdom, who venerate the constitution, and only condemn the ministers when they suppose them to have committed innovations upon it. Some are in opposition upon religious prejudices

dices, because they have ever been hostile to the ecclesiastical establishment. None of these descriptions of men, however, are to be regarded as friendly to a revolution. We have, on the contrary, ever affirmed, that the actual republicans in this country are few, and those are to be rather considered as speculative than active democratists. The persons who are desirous of a change of government in this country are also comparatively very few; and these are men of desperate fortunes, or in the lower classes of society. These have ever been our sentiments, and, we are persuaded, the course of events, and the cool judgment of posterity, will confirm our verdict. So ignorant, however, have the French always been of the real disposition of the people of England, that they have continually flattered themselves, that if the standard of revolt was once erected, millions would flock to enrol themselves under it. In the year 1794, a person of the name of Jackson, who had been a clergyman of the church of England, and was, previous to his going to France, connected with some of the daily papers in London, obtained, through some Irish or British emigrants in Paris, an introduction to the jacobin party which was then in power. Jackson came to England with no recommendation except to a Mr. Stone, whose brother at that time resided in the Gallic metropolis, and was, we believe, employed as the printer to the convention. The object of the mission was, apparently, to form a connexion with the disaffected party in this kingdom, and to facilitate a plan of invasion, which seems to have been, at least remotely, meditated at that time. It is remarkable, that though Jackson was a native of Ireland, this country, and not his

own, appears to have been the sole object of the French at that period. Stone, however, to whom he was recommended, was better informed; if we may credit his defence on his trial, he earnestly deprecated any plan of invasion here; and some persons, with whom he communicated, advised Jackson to turn his attention to his native country, as a theatre better adapted to revolutionary movements. Jackson proceeded to Ireland with this view: he was there introduced to Mr. Hamilton Rowan, at that time imprisoned in Newgate for seditious or treasonable practices, and to Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone, both of them persons of high authority in the society of united Irishmen, and, indeed, men of influence in the country. From his communications with these and other persons of the same description, he was informed of the true state of Irish politics; and something like a plan began to be formed for a co-operation with the French in an invasion of Ireland. During his stay in England, however, Jackson had communicated pretty freely with a person who had formerly exercised the profession of an attorney. This man he made his confidential agent, and entrusted with all his secrets. In the mean time this person had revealed to the British ministers the views and conduct of Jackson, and he was ordered by them to watch all his motions, which he carefully did. In conclusion, Jackson was apprehended, brought to trial in Dublin, and convicted of high treason. The unfortunate man anticipated the sentence of the law; and having, as is generally believed, taken poison previously to his being called into court to receive sentence, he suddenly, as his council began to argue an arrest of judgment,

ment, sunk down at the bar, and expired. Stone was also apprehended in England; and, after a long detention in Newgate, was brought to trial before the court of King's Bench, and acquitted; principally, we believe, on the ground that he had discouraged the idea of invading Great Britain, and was not concerned in the transactions of Jackson in Ireland.

Immediately on the conviction of Jackson, Mr. Tone, and some others of the united Irishmen, absconded; Mr. Hamilton Rowan soon after made his escape from Newgate; and from this time, till the latter end of the year 1795, there appears to have existed no direct communication between the French government and the united Irishmen, as a society at least.

Soon after the recall of earl Fitzwilliam, the society of united Irishmen received a considerable accession of men of parts and influence. Mr. Arthur O'Connor, in particular, who had distinguished himself by his able support of that nobleman's administration in the house of commons; Dr. McNevin, who had been chairman of the committee for enforcing the claims set forth in the catholic petition; and, we believe, Mr. Oliver Bond, an opulent citizen of Dublin, who had been a distinguished supporter of the same principles, joined the society. What is called the *military system* had commenced before these gentlemen became members. It was completed in the province of Ulster on the 10th of May 1795; but it had not made any considerable progress beyond the northern province before the autumn of 1795, when emissaries were sent into the province of Leinster to propagate the system, and to urge the fabrication of pikes, and the

procuring of arms. It is affirmed, in the report of the Irish house of lords, "that, on this occasion, the stale prettexts of parliamentary reform and catholic emancipation were found ineffectual for the seduction of the people of that province; and therefore the emissaries of treason, who had undertaken it, in order to prevail with them to adopt the system of organisation, first represented that it was necessary in their own defence, as their protestant fellow subjects had entered into a solemn league and covenant to destroy them, having sworn to wade up to their knees in popish blood." By the confessions, indeed, of counsellor Emmet and Mr. Bond, both of them members of the Irish executive directory, it appears that catholic emancipation was a mere pretext, as no ecclesiastical establishment was to have been permitted had the measures of the society been successful; and the mass of the people too, it appears, were perfectly indifferent with respect to a parliamentary reform, and were wrought upon, chiefly by the prospect of the abolition of tythes, and a persuasion that their condition would be bettered by a revolution.

Through the medium of Mr. Tone, and other Irish refugees, a regular communication was opened, in the year 1795, between the French directory and the united Irishmen. In the latter end of that year, a messenger was dispatched to France from the society, and that messenger is supposed to have been Mr. Edward John Lewins, an attorney in Dublin, and a very active member. Early in the succeeding year, therefore, a proposition was received from the French government, that an army should be sent over to Ireland, to assist in
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the projected effort to subvert the monarchy, and to separate Ireland from the British connexion. The proposal was duly considered, and, after some deliberation, accepted by the society: but to arrange the preliminaries for the invasion, it was determined that some of the most eminent of the leaders of the republican faction in Ireland should have an interview with a confidential agent on the part of France. With this view, in the course of the summer of 1796, lord Edward Fitzgerald, and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, proceeded to Switzerland.—Near the French frontier, an interview took place between these gentlemen and general Hoche; and in this conversation, it is believed, the whole plan of the invasion was finally adjusted. Of the abortive expedition of general Hoche, in the winter of 1796, the effect of this conference, and the causes of its failure, we have formerly spoken. The determined loyalty, evinced by the great mass of the Irish nation on that occasion, is a circumstance which has occasioned surprise, and is even now more calculated than before to excite our astonishment, since we are now acquainted with the measures which had been adopted in Ireland to give effect to the invasion. The mystery is however, in some degree, developed by the testimony of some of the members of the Irish directory. In the month of November, an express was received, informing the Irish executive (as the five members of the directory were termed), that a descent was immediately to be made with a force of 15,000 men; but in a few days after, a letter arrived, which they considered as authentic, acquainting them, that the expedition was deferred till the spring, when it

was intimated, that full employment would be found for the British forces by the invasion of Great Britain itself, as well as the sister kingdom. The people were therefore left wholly unprepared for the reception of the French, and unapprised of the measures which had been previously taken. The letter, stating that the expedition was deferred, was probably a contrivance of some agent of the British government, but of this we are not officially informed.

The military system, as it is called, proceeded with vigour after the renewed communication with the French government in 1796. As the province of Ulster had been always the most forward in every preparation, the organisation was first completed there; the other provinces were less forward; but Leinster, we believe, was the second in readiness. The mode of arming was communicated by an order from the Irish executive, which enjoined, that every member of the union, who had the means, should provide himself with fire-arms; and that those who were unequal to this expense should provide themselves with pikes. The military organisation was founded on the civil arrangements.—The secretary to each small division, or society of twelve, was the petty officer, under the title of serjeant or corporal; the delegate of five societies to a lower baronial was usually a captain, and thus had sixty men under his command. The delegate of ten lower baronials to the upper or distinct committee was usually the colonel; and thus a battalion consisted in general of about 600 men. The staff officers were appointed in the following manner: the colonels of each county sat in the names of three persons

persons to the executive, one of whom was appointed by that body adjutant-general to his county. His duty was to communicate all military orders from the executive. The commander in chief, and the superior officers were, we believe, appointed by the directory alone.

It was in the month of March, 1796, that the famous insurrection act, empowering the magistrates in any county or district to proclaim it out of the king's peace, and consequently to subject the inhabitants to military law, was passed; but this law was not acted upon till the month of November following. Various opinions have been entertained of the operation of this act; by one party the salvation of the country is attributed to the vigour which it gave to the supporters of government; by the other, it is alleged to have increased the discontents it was intended to suppress, to have produced some horrid acts of injustice and oppression, which irritated the people, and added to the numbers of the disaffected. We have our doubts whether either of these opinions is strictly just. Vigorous measures were at that season undoubtedly necessary on the part of government: and the conspiracy had struck too deep a root, that the increase of the numbers of united men did not certainly depend on a few solitary instances of cruelty or oppression; on the other hand, a wise government should be always cautious of the multiplication of penal statutes; and the defeat of the conspiracy certainly was not the effect of this law—it was brought about by more effectual means, by a discovery of the plot, and by striking at the root of the evil by securing the leaders.

After the abortive expedition of Hoche, the members of the Irish

union were not discouraged. The alliance with France, on the contrary, became more firmly cemented. A regular communication and correspondence was established. Lewis, who has been already mentioned, was appointed as the resident minister of the Irish directory at Paris. He passed over, under the assumed name of Thompson, from Ireland to Hamburg. There he obtained letters of evi-dence from the French minister to general Hoche, whom he met at Frankfort, and afterwards proceeded to Paris, where he remained, as the accredited minister of what they vainly termed "the Irish republic." Of the nature of the negotiations carried on by this agent, we are not yet correctly informed; but, in the summer of 1797, a special minister was sent, in consequence of an application from the French directory, in order to make the necessary arrangements for the invasion. Dr. McNevin, who had acted as secretary to the Irish executive, was appointed to this service, and, in the month of June, proceeded to Paris, with fuller powers, and more specific instructions, from the Irish directory than had been furnished to Lewis. As the principal intention of Dr. McNevin's journey was to arrange the plan of the intended invasion, he came with a precise project for the expedition. He recommended, that the attempt should be made at Oysterhaven rather than at Bantry; because the reduction of the city of Cork would be greatly facilitated by that arrangement. An additional supply of arms was also required, as large seizures had been made by the Irish government; and the expenses of this arrangement, as well as of the preceding one, under general Hoche, he undertook, should

be defrayed by funds, for which the Irish republic, as soon as regularly constituted, should be responsible. The negotiation was then pending at Liffey; and it was strongly urged upon the directory, by the Irish agents, to insist on the separation of Ireland from Great Britain as one of the preliminaries. Dr. McNevin was further instructed to negotiate a loan of half-a-million, in France or Spain, on the credit of the Irish directory; but in this object of his mission he failed. According to the memorial drawn up by Dr. McNevin, and presented to the French government about this time, about 150,000 united Irishmen were organised and enrolled in the province of Ulster only.

While these negotiations with the enemy were in agitation, the impatience of some of the party in Ireland could scarcely be restrained; and, in the spring of 1797, a plan was seriously discussed among the leaders in Dublin for a general rising, without waiting for foreign assistance; but it was overruled by the Dublin part of the committee, who had cooler heads, or better information, than their associates. The Irish government, in the mean time, equally alarmed and perplexed by different menacing and contradictory reports, knew scarcely from what quarter to expect the blow, or what measures to adopt, either to discover the lurking treason, or anticipate its effects. They appear to have been for a considerable period ignorant of the nature of the constitution of the united Irishmen, of the extent of their views, and of their power. A discovery of some importance in the beginning of the year 1797 enabled them in some measure to de-

velop the mysterious proceedings of the society, and to place themselves in a posture of defence. Information had been received, that a seditious meeting of some description or other was to be held at the house of a person of the name of Alexander, at Belfast, on Friday, the 14th of April, 1797. On this information, colonel Barber, with a detachment of the army, proceeded on that day to the place of meeting, where he found two societies or committees actually sitting. Colonel Barber was accompanied on this occasion by Mr. Fox, the storekeeper of the ordnance, and this gentleman entered one of the rooms, and lieutenant Ellison the other. They seized the papers and minutes. They found the printed declaration and constitution of the united Irishmen; various reports from provincial and county committees, and several other important documents which left them no longer in doubt respecting the extent and the views of this formidable conspiracy. By the activity of the magistrates in other parts of the kingdom certain other papers, which were circulated by the society, were discovered, and served to throw further light on their proceedings, and to confirm the discoveries already made.

The papers which were seized were subjected to secret committees of both houses of parliament; and, upon the evidence they contained, a report was drawn up by each house. The vigour and activity of government was increased; a large accession was made to the military force of the kingdom; the insurrection act was put in force in several parts; considerable districts were proclaimed out of the king's peace; and large seizures were made
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of concealed arms. In pursuing these measures, it would be absurd to deny that many acts of rigour, we might, perhaps, say, of cruelty, were committed by the agents of government. Fear and alarm are strong passions, and there are, perhaps, none that actuate the human breast which dispose more to cruel and sanguinary conduct. Several persons were flogged and otherwise tortured to extort confessions. These are proceedings of which we cannot approve. Every punishment inflicted without trial is a violation of justice; and men, who were contending for the government and constitution of their ancestors, ought to have been the last to violate that constitution, whatever the temptation. In the confidence of a good cause, they ought to have adopted implicitly the maxim—"Fiat justitia ruat cælum;"—with the dignity becoming patriots they ought to have placed themselves upon the defensive at every point, but not have suffered the slightest violation of those sacred rights they were so gloriously defending. We much question, whether the policy of these proceedings was not as erroneous as the proceedings themselves were blame-worthy. The inferior agents were little acquainted with the great scheme on which their chiefs were proceeding; and it is manifest, that the conspiracy was at least not discovered by the infliction of arbitrary punishments. To defeat seditious machinations, rewards are always a more powerful instrument in the hands of government than punishments. The men who enter into conspiracies are commonly ambitious, and often avaricious.—The band is easily broken by holding forth proper temptations to such persons to return to

loyalty and forsake their fellows in iniquity; and, in fact, it was by these means, and not by the other, that Ireland was saved.

Candour will, however, be cautious in imputing to the government every excess into which a heated soldiery may be occasionally betrayed; and, on the other hand, if some acts of gross severity were exercised, let it be remembered that the provocations were many. Unhappy Ireland was at this period the theatre of assassination and outrage. The houses of the peaceable inhabitants were frequently assailed by night by persons in connexion with the society of united Irishmen, and some respectable persons were murdered in the most barbarous manner, without provocation, and, in some instances, without an attempt to defend themselves.

The whig minority in the Irish parliament (whom the noble author of the report of the secret committee of the lords, with becoming candour, exonerates from the charge of being privy to or conscious of the designs of the traitors) made at this time some efforts to steer a middle course, and to effect, by conciliation, what others were effecting by force. In the month of May, 1797, Mr. Ponsonby introduced a motion into the Irish house of commons in favour of a parliamentary reform. The arguments on both sides turned chiefly on the present circumstances of the nation. Those who supported the motion urged it as a means of satisfying the people, and allaying the discontents. The ministerial side of the house asserted, on the contrary, that no time could possibly be so unfavourable as the present for making any experiments on the government and constitution

tion of the country. The motion was rejected by a majority of one hundred and seventeen votes to thirty. The introduction of the motion certainly evinced, that the minority in parliament were unacquainted with the views and arrangements of the united men; otherwise they must have known, that, at the period of which we are treating, no concession of the kind would have satisfied that faction, whose object unquestionably was to destroy the connexion with Britain, and erect Ireland into an independent republic. After this effort, the whig party in Ireland succeeded in a body, and never afterwards took a part in the parliamentary discussion.

The fatal effects of party and disunion were at this period apparent in almost every part of the kingdom. Commerce appeared to be totally stagnant, and agriculture could not be said to flourish, while whole districts, through alarm or disaffection, were nearly depopulated. A proclamation was issued by the government on the 17th of May, which exhibits a most affecting picture of this miserable country. It is the picture of a people deserting all their peaceful occupations, and preparing for civil war. It states, that under various pretences, the most alarming and seditious assemblages were convened; that large armed bodies of the malcontents had plundered the houses of the peaceable inhabitants; that the district, or yeomanry forces, had been attacked with a view to disarm them; and that the growing timber of the country had been clandestinely cut down and conveyed away for the fabrication of pikes and offensive weapons. It is further stated, that the exertions of the civil power had proved in-

effectual for the suppression of the conspiracy, and for the protection of the lives and properties of his majesty's faithful subjects; and that it was now become necessary to employ the military force:—that orders had, therefore, been issued to all officers commanding his majesty's troops, to oppose, with their full power, all such as should obstruct them in the execution of their duty. The proclamation concludes with an offer of pardon to all such persons as had joined the treasonable societies, on their return to their allegiance, excepting only such as had been guilty of murder, conspiracy of murder, burglary, burning of houses, or other acts of plunder and devastation.

Not intimidated by the determined spirit of this proclamation, nor even by the active exertions of the military, the united men proceeded with redoubled vigour. The concealed arms were slowly discovered, and with difficulty, since there does not appear to have been any general depôt of arms; but each individual took care of his own. It is even stated, in the report of the committee of the commons, that soon after the proclamation of the 17th of May, an active effort was made to produce a general insurrection throughout Ulster, the orders for which were given about the latter end of that month, in conformity to a plan which had been previously prepared. A slight movement did accordingly take place, but the main design was frustrated by the vigilance and activity of general Lake. Many of the leaders were compelled to fly, and some were apprehended. From the examination of John Hughes, of Belfast, however, before the committee of the lords, it appears that the insurrec-

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tion did not take place, because the majority of the counties in Ulster were disinclined to come forward, and the majority of the rebel colonels were of opinion, that it was imprudent to act, at that period, without foreign aid.

The expected assistance, was indeed, at this period, in a very forward state of preparation.

In the month of July, the Irish directory received dispatches from their ministers at Paris, announcing that the armament then fitting out in the Texel was intended for Ireland. In consequence of this information, the approach of the invaders was announced at the provincial meetings, as appears by the provincial reports; in which it was stated, that the expedition was to proceed from two parts; that the French government had commanded their admiral to proceed to sea as soon as the wind should be favourable, and fight the English, and that the Dutch admiral had received similar orders. With this view, the troops, under the command of general Daendels, had actually embarked on board the fleet in the Texel; but, for what reason is uncertain, were suddenly put on shore. The Dutch fleet was afterwards ordered to put to sea, and was defeated off Camperdown, by the British fleet, commanded by admiral lord Duncan, as related in our last volume, on the 11th of October, 1797.

After the rupture of the negotiation at Lisle, the French government gave the strongest assurances to the faction in Ireland of speedy and effectual support; and that they would never abandon the cause of the Irish union, or make peace with Great Britain, until the separation of Ireland from that government should be effected.

1798.

Notwithstanding this apparent harmony, however, we have been assured, that considerable jealousies existed between the Irish faction and the French directory. The ambition of the French has uniformly increased with their success; and it was believed by some of the Irish, that the real object of the Gallic directory was not to assist, but to subdue them. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, and others of the chiefs of the union, were desirous of a force not exceeding ten thousand men, nor less than five, and about 40,000 stand of arms. The French, either because they really harboured the design, which has been imputed to them, or finding themselves unable to make any effort, refused to send less than an army of 50,000 men. The plan recommended by lord Edward was certainly that which was most adapted to insure success. It was to embark the troops in frigates, or other light sailing vessels; not to send them all in one fleet; and to land them on different parts of the coast, in bodies sufficiently strong to make a stand against any force that might easily be collected; but not so numerous as to require a fleet to convey them, or to occupy much time in their debarkation. Happily for these kingdoms, the ambition, or mistaken politics of the French rulers led them to reject this plan, and to pursue measures which ended in the frustration of the conspiracy, and the disappointment and confusion of its abettors.

Thus the winter of 1797 was suffered to pass by the French government without a single effort to assist their Irish confederates; and thus the favourable and the critical moment was suffered to elapse. The Irish government was now

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completely on its guard, and the vigilance and activity of the ministry there unquestionably deserve commendation. Worn out, at last, by the tardy proceedings of their allies, and perceiving that their opponents were increasing in strength, while their own party was visibly on the decline, towards the beginning of the year 1798, the faction, it appears, resolved upon a desperate effort. In the month of February a military committee was appointed by the executive council of the rebels; detailed instructions were issued to the adjutant-generals; and thanks were voted to the several colonels for their assiduity in embodying and organising the people. In the meantime, the Irish executive prepared a dispatch for the French directory, pressing, in the most earnest terms, for the promised succours; but it was found impossible to convey it thither. Though many of the united men were deprived by government of their arms, and though many deserted the cause, yet the zeal and impatience of the people in some districts kept pace with the ardour of their leaders and the urgency of their affairs. In the months of February and March, many parts of Leinster and Munster were in the actual possession of the united Irishmen, and other parts were secretly under their control. The nocturnal insurrections were innumerable throughout the kingdom. In one instance an attack was made in the open day. The town of Cahir, in the county of Tipperary, was invested by a party of 800 men, chiefly cavalry. It was retained in their possession till a regular search was made for arms, and they were suffered to evacuate it in order and without molestation. The acts of murder

and barbarity committed on these occasions, we are sorry to add, were numerous; and such was the terror generally excited, that the report of the committee of the commons states, that very many of the loyal inhabitants of the counties of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary, Kilkenny, Carlow, King's County, Queen's County, Kildare, and Wicklow, fled for safety to the garrison towns. The Irish government, justly alarmed, therefore, at the progress of the conspiracy, issued, on the 30th of March 1798, a proclamation, stating, that the traitorous conspiracy, which had for some time excited, had at length broken out into open acts of violence and rebellion; that, therefore, orders had been issued to the officers commanding his majesty's forces, to employ them with the utmost vigour and decision, for the immediate suppression thereof; to endeavour to recover the arms which had been plundered, and to disarm the rebels; and all persons disaffected to his majesty's government, by the most summary and effectual measures.

Previous to the issuing of this proclamation, a generous and humane effort was made by the earl of Moira, supported by all those who were at once the friends of order and of liberty, to restore the tranquillity of the kingdom by measures of conciliation.

On the 19th of February, 1798, lord Moira submitted a motion to this effect, to the consideration of the house of lords. In his speech, his lordship repeated nearly the same facts which he had stated in his place in the British house of peers.—He related that “many individuals had been torn from their families, and locked up for months in the closest confinement, without hearing by whom

whom they were accused, with what crime they were charged, or to what means they might recur to prove their innocence; that great numbers of houses had been burned, with the whole property of the wretched owners, upon the loosest supposition of even petty transgressions; that torture, by which he meant picquetting and half-hanging, had been used in more instances than one, in order to extort from the sufferer a charge against his neighbours." If he should be contradicted with respect to these facts, he professed himself prepared to "produce the affidavits of them," and declared his intention of moving "for the examination of the deponents at the bar." After charging the British cabinet with all the evils in Ireland, which his lordship considered as consequences of the perverse principles they had adopted for that country, his lordship proceeded, in strong terms, to recommend a conciliatory system. He allowed that conspiracies might exist, and that atrocities had been committed in the country;—"but (said his lordship) have you not laws to repress these enormities? and, if your statutes are not sufficiently forcible for that purpose, why do you not apply to parliament for provisions better calculated to repress the mischief? If there are delinquencies there must be delinquents. Prove their guilt and punish them; but do not, on a loose charge of partial transgression, impose infliction on the whole community. The state of society is dreadful indeed, when the safety of every man is at the mercy of a secret informer, when the cupidity, the malevolence, or the erroneous suspicions of an individual, are sufficient to destroy his neighbour."

After proposing an address to the lord-lieutenant, to urge his excellency to pursue such conciliatory measures as might allay the apprehensions and extinguish the discontents unhappily prevalent in the country, his lordship proceeded to notice the two great points in debate, the concession of those immunities which were still withheld from the catholics, and parliamentary reform. On the first of these questions he declared, that his mind had been long decided, nor could he see the policy of refusing to give such a body of men a common interest with their countrymen. With respect to the other, he declared himself not a friend to parliamentary reform—not because he foresaw from it any of those ruinous consequences, on the certainty of which declaimers had rested their opposition, but because he thought it would not answer the expectations of those who brought it forward. If, however, it should be found that the general voice of the people was desirous of the measure, and that it would be a means of tranquillising the public mind, he wished to give up his private opinion to the general good.

The earl of Moira was answered by lord Glentworth, who remarked, that the motion appeared to him to be calculated to dishearten and dismay the loyal, and to animate and invigorate the disloyal. The noble earl, he said, in his statement, seemed to mistake the effect for the cause. The measures of which he complained were the consequences, and not the cause of dissatisfaction; government was certainly to blame, but it was for not having resisted those measures sooner. He then entered into a detail of the machinations

of the united Irishmen, which corresponded, in a great measure, with what has been narrated in the preceding part of this chapter. He professed not to justify the burnings, &c. mentioned by the noble earl; at the same time, he thought examples were not unnecessary; but assured the noble earl, that government never gave orders for military outrage. He asserted, that, during the late negotiations, there were at Lisle Irish agents who saw the French directory more frequently than the embassy did, and dissuaded them from peace. He mentioned the licentiousness of certain newspapers, and observed, that in France the guillotine would have stopped the circulation of such papers long ago. The noble lord then enumerated several instances of murder perpetrated by the insurgents; and aptly compared their proceedings to those of the insatuated disciples of the Man of the Mountain.

The ablest opponent of the earl of Moira was, however, the lord-chancellor. He began with paying a just compliment to the character of the noble earl; but attributed to his residence out of his own country his ignorance of the actual state of it. He asserted, that the system of government had been a system of conciliation; that in no place had the experiment been so fairly tried as in Ireland; in none had it so completely failed. His lordship gave a masterly detail of the proceedings of the united men, to prove that their object was an overthrow of the government, and a dissolution of the British connexion. He did not justify the proceedings of the orange men, but asserted that they were not enemies to their country. His lordship then proceeded to examine the facts alleged by lord Moira. He acknow-

ledged that a blacksmith had been picquetted, which led to the discovery of 100 pikes, which had been forged by him as the instruments of murder and treason. He did not justify the burning of houses, cottages, &c.; but observed, that when treason and rebellion make it necessary to call out the military, it is not always possible to restrain their resentments. With respect to treating with the united Irishmen, the chancellor observed, that so hostile were they to British connexion and regular government, that they would as soon treat with himself as with the earl of Moira.

In the course of his speech, the chancellor passed some reflections on the bishop of Down, who had promoted a petition to his majesty in favour of conciliatory measures. From the charge of disaffection, the learned prelate very satisfactorily exculpated himself. He professed that he was a friend to conciliation. Coercion, he said, had been tried long enough—he attributed much of the calamities of the country to the recall of earl Fitzwilliam. With respect to catholic emancipation, he considered it as a matter of right, not of favour; and a reform of parliament as an act of policy, which the state of the country rendered absolutely necessary. The motion was also supported by lord Dunfry, who asserted that the present system was the cause of the existing discontents. It had been asked of the noble earl who made the motion, why he had not now brought before the house a catalogue of those enormous cruelties which he had detailed in the British house of peers? Instead of being asked such a question, the noble and learned lord should rather have thanked him for the conciliating and pacific manner

in which he proposed to act. But if noble lords wanted such a catalogue, he could furnish them; he could relate to them not simply the burning of houses, but the murder, in cold blood, of their inhabitants; he could give them an account of three men particularly, who, after having had their houses burned to the ground, were shot by the military, after having been for some time prisoners: and he could add to these accounts the much more numerous instances of men torn from their family and country, and, without the form of a trial, transported for life.

The earl of Moira made a very able reply, and again offered to substantiate his facts at the bar of the house. He admitted that a conspiracy did exist in the country against the government. But he "attributed that conspiracy to the severe and unconstitutional measures which government had adopted," and to "that most impolitic and lamentable measure, the recall of earl Fitzwilliam." The motion of earl Moira was negatived by a large majority.

We have given a brief sketch of this interesting debate, because it involved some striking facts, which serve to illustrate the melancholy state of the kingdom at this juncture. We must, however, remark, that the whig party of Ireland, on this occasion, as well as on many others, certainly betrayed their ignorance of the dangerous machinations of the leaders of the conspiracy. We certainly greatly disapprove of what has been termed "a vigour beyond the law;" we disapprove of every act of violence or punishment, *not sanctioned by a legal verdict*. That these acts might, in some degree, irritate and spread disaffection among such of the peo-

ple as were not in the secrets of the united Irishmen is probable; but it must be allowed, on the other hand, that no measures of conciliation were likely to have effect with the leaders of that society. For in the very day in which the earl of Moira introduced his motion to the house of lords, a resolution was passed by the united committees of Ulster and Leinster, and entered in their books, importing, "that they would pay no attention whatever to any attempt that might be made by either house of parliament, to divert the public mind from the grand object they had in view, as nothing short of the complete emancipation of their country would satisfy them."

Hitherto the Irish government seems to have proceeded on a system not deficient in vigour, but it was a vigour ill directed, and little calculated to ensure the great objects, safety and success. Individuals had been punished, and many persons had suffered, both in their property and persons; but they were individuals of no rank or consequence, and probably little acquainted with the nature of the business in which they were engaged. The great authors and designers of the mischief still remained untouched, the union undissolved; the rebel directory still reposed in peace, issuing their mandates in secret security.— "They rode in the whirlwind, and directed the storm." Accident, rather than policy, seems happily to have led the government to those discoveries which were of real importance, and to those effective measures which, fortunately for both kingdoms, completely defeated the mischievous intentions of so dangerous, because so able and pow-

erful, a band of conspirators. But before we proceed to this part of our narrative, it will be necessary to notice some transactions in England, which, though not immediately connected with the discovery, have a near relation to some of the principal members of the faction.

It has been already related, that Mr. Arthur O'Connor, the nephew of lord Longueville, and a distinguished supporter of earl Fitzwilliam's administration in the Irish parliament, soon after the recall of that nobleman, became an active member of the society of united Irishmen. He had been seated in parliament by the interest of his uncle; but upon that nobleman expressing his displeasure at some parts of his parliamentary conduct, had resigned. The splendid talents of Mr. O'Connor were a serious accession to the cause of the united men, and his courage was equal to his talents. A newspaper, called the Northern Star, had been long published in Belfast, under the direction chiefly of Mr. Samuel Neilson, a distinguished member of the society, and devoted to their cause. This newspaper was suppressed by the interference of the military, the presses broken, and the printing house destroyed. To repair the loss, the united Irishmen had established in Dublin a newspaper entitled The Press, but the inveterate language of this publication soon subjected it to a prosecution; the publisher was imprisoned, and the paper in danger of being suppressed. In this crisis Mr. O'Connor came boldly forward, and announced himself as the proprietor and editor of the obnoxious paper. Mr. O'Connor was, at this period (the latter end of 1797), elected a member of

the Irish directory, in conjunction with lord Edward Fitzgerald, Mr. Oliver Bond, a gentleman in a considerable commercial business in Dublin, Dr. McNevin, who had been actively concerned for the catholics during lord Fitzwilliam's administration, and counsellor Emmet. Strong suspicions, however, fell upon Mr. O'Connor; and his brother Roger O'Connor, esq. was apprehended and lodged in Cork goal, on a charge of high treason, from which, however, he was liberated at the spring assizes, from a total want of evidence against him. Thus circumstanced, in the beginning of the year 1798, Mr. O'Connor came to England, with an intention, as it afterwards appeared, of proceeding to France, in conjunction with John Binns, an active member of the London corresponding society, James Coigley, an Irish priest, and a person of the name of Allen. Mr. O'Connor, in the latter end of February went to Margate, intending to hire a small vessel to convey them to France. Some circumstances in their conduct, however, exciting suspicion, they were all apprehended, and first committed prisoners to the Tower, and afterwards to Maidstone goal. At Maidstone they were tried by a special commission on the 21st and 22d of May, and all of them acquitted, except Coigley, on whom had been found a treasonable and most absurd paper, purporting to be an address from "the secret committee of England to the executive directory of France."—Coigley was therefore condemned and executed; and Mr. O'Connor and Binns, after their acquittal, were detained on another charge of treason preferred against them.

In the mean time, an act had passed the Irish parliament, authorising grand juries to present any newspaper, containing seditious or libellous matter, as a nuisance; and also authorising the magistrates, on such presentation, to suppress the paper, and seize and destroy the printing materials, &c. The paper called *The Prefs* was therefore suppressed, and some of its principal supporters taken into custody; but no discovery of importance resulted from this transaction.

The crisis had now arrived which was to prove fatal to the united Irishmen; and the discoveries which led to the developement and disappointment of all their machinations seem to have been effected with little effort on the part of government. In a complicated plan of conspiracy the agency of many persons must be employed; and as the plot ripens to maturity, the secret of it must be gradually disclosed. Among the persons whom it became necessary to entrust with a considerable share of confidence, was a Mr. Reynolds, who had formerly been a silk-manufacturer of some note in the city of Dublin, but had latterly resided in the county of Kildare. Having been sworn a united Irishman in February 1797, Reynolds was, in the following winter, appointed treasurer for the county, and also a colonel in the rebel army. The first disclosure which he made of the transactions of the united Irishmen was to a Mr. Cope, with whom Reynolds had some pecuniary transactions relative to a mortgage on lands in the neighbourhood of Castle Jordon. It was on the 25th of February, 1798, in the course of a journey to take possession of these lands, that Reynolds first communicated

with Mr. Cope on the business. At the persuasion of this gentleman, he disclosed to him from time to time the nature and extent of the conspiracy; and as a meeting of delegates for the province of Leinster was summoned for the 12th of March, at the house of Mr. Oliver Bond, he also gave information of it to the government, through Mr. Cope. At the day and hour appointed for the meeting, the house of Mr. Bond was beset by the officers of justice; fourteen of the delegates were apprehended, with their secretary M^r. Can; at the same time Dr. M^r. Nevin, and counsellor Emmett, and some other active members of the society, were taken into custody. A warrant had been issued against lord Edward Fitzgerald, but he escaped, and remained undiscovered for upwards of two months in the city of Dublin. He was discovered, however, on the 19th of May, at the house of one Murphy, a dealer in feathers, who resided near St. James's Gate. On the police officers entering the room, the unhappy nobleman made a desperate defence; he wounded two of the principal of them, Mr. justice Swan, and a captain Ryan, dangerously; and was himself so severely wounded, that he languished a few days only before he expired. His death, it is said, was that of a christian; and his courage and fortitude would have done honour to a better cause than that in which he was engaged.

The seizure of the delegates was a death-blow to the schemes of the united Irishmen. A new directory was chosen, but they soon experienced the fate of the former; and, indeed, the rashness of their own conduct, in all probability, hastened the catastrophe. Their proceedings

were developed and disclosed by another informer; this was a captain Armstrong, of the King's County militia, who had pretended to enter into the conspiracy with the intention of discovering their schemes, and betraying them to the government. It appears that a part of their plan was to gain over as many of his majesty's troops as possible to their side, and particularly of the militia regiments, previous to their making a general attack upon the royal camp of Loughlinstown. For this purpose captain Armstrong appeared a fit instrument. He had been in the habits of frequenting the shop of a bookseller, of the name of Byrne, in Grafton-street, Dublin, who was generally regarded as one of the literary agents of the rebel faction. Among the leading members of the united Irishmen were two young barristers, of the name of Sheares, both men of excellent talents, and of unsullied reputation, and who had, both of them, we believe, been elected members of the Irish executive after the arrest of the old members on the 12th of March. To the acquaintance of these gentlemen Byrne proposed to introduce captain Armstrong, whom he had, from various conversations, been led to consider as a convert to their cause; and Armstrong had soon the address to insinuate himself completely into their confidence.

It was on the 10th of May that Armstrong was introduced to the Sheares's, and, at that time, the affairs of the united Irishmen appeared to verge towards a crisis. From this man, and other agents, the government learned that "a general rising," as it was termed by them, of the people, must im-

mediately take place; that the people began to be impatient from the criminal prosecutions; and that it was become necessary to make a home exertion, and relinquish the original plan of waiting for French succour. The whole of the united Irishmen throughout the kingdom, or at least throughout the province of Leinster, it appears, were to act at once in concert; and it was their intention to seize the camp of Loughlinstown, the artillery at Chapel-izod, and the castle of Dublin, in one night, the 23d of May. One hour was to be allowed between seizing the camp of Loughlinstown, and the artillery at Chapel-izod, and one hour and a half between seizing the artillery and surprising the castle; and the parties who executed both of the external plans were to enter the city of Dublin at the same moment. The stopping of the mail-coaches was to be the signal for the insurgents every-where to commence their operations. It was also planned that a great insurrection should take place at Cork at the same time. The united men were, however, at this period, not exactly agreed as to the nature of the insurrection. Mr. Samuel Neilson, who had been peculiarly active in Belfast, and (as was intimated before) one of the proprietors of the Northern Star, with some others of the leaders, were bent upon attacking first the county gaol of Kilmainham, and the gaol of Newgate, in order to set their comrades at liberty; and the project for attacking the latter was also fixed for the 23d of May, the night of the general insurrection. The Sheares's, however, and others, were of a contrary opinion, and they wished to defer the attack of the gaols till after the general insurrection.

rection had taken place; and even threatened to give notice to government of the plot, if Neilson and his friends did not immediately desist.

Both plots were, however, completely frustrated. Messrs. John and Henry Sheares, with some others of the principal conspirators, were apprehended on the 21st of May, and Mr. Neilson and others on the 23d; the city and county of Dublin were proclaimed by the lord-lieutenant and council in a state of insurrection; the guards at the castle, and all the great objects of attack were trebled; and in fact the whole city was converted into a garrison. Thus the rebels were unable to effect any thing by surprise; and without leaders, almost without arms or ammunition, the infatuated multitude adventured on the bloody contest. Notwithstanding the apparent forwardness of the north, the first commotions appeared in different parts of Leinster. The northern and Connaught mail-coaches were stopped by parties of the insurgents on the night of the 23d of May; and, at about twelve o'clock on the morning of the 24th, a large body of rebels attacked the town and gaol of Naas, about fourteen miles from Dublin, where lord Gosford commanded. As the guard had been seasonably increased, in expectation of such an attack, the assailants were repulsed, and driven into a narrow avenue, where, without order or discipline, they sustained, for some time, the attack of the Armagh militia, and of the fencible corps raised by sir W. W. Wynne, and known by the name of the Ancient Britons. The king's troops lost two officers, and about thirty men, and the rebels had about 140 killed before they

took to flight. They were, however, completely dispersed, and several of them taken prisoners. On the same day, a small division of his Majesty's forces were surprised at the town of Prosperous; and a detachment at the village of Clare cut their way through to Naas, with considerable loss. About the same time, general Dundas encountered a large body of insurgents on the hills near Kilkullen, and 130 of these misguided persons were left dead upon the field.

On the following day, a body of about 400 rebels, under the command of two gentlemen of the names of Ledwich and Keough, marched from Rathfarnham, in the neighbourhood of Dublin, along the foot of the mountain towards Belgatt and Cloudalkin: in their progress, they were met by a party of thirty-five dragoons, under the command of lord Roden. After some resistance, the rebels were defeated, great numbers were killed and wounded, and their leaders Ledwich and Keough were taken. They were immediately tried by a court-martial, and executed, having pleaded in vain that they had been forced into the service.

On the 26th, another body of rebels was defeated at Tallagh-hill, about 13 miles from Dublin, with the loss of 350 killed; among whom was their commander, who was supposed, from different circumstances, to have been an officer in the French service. In the mean time alarming commotions had appeared in the remoter parts. The town of Carlow was attacked on the morning of the 24th of May, by about 1000 rebels. The first movement, on the part of the insurgents, was to possess themselves of some pieces of cannon, which, however,

however, they were forced to abandon. The command of the town, or the garrison, as it was termed (for at this unfortunate period the principal towns were converted into garrisons), was entrusted to major Dennis, who, with one troop of horse, and two companies of militia, assisted by some corps of volunteers, defeated the rebels with the loss of 400 men. As the inhabitants were accused of having fired out of their houses upon the king's troops, the military, in revenge, are said to have burned a part of the town. The town of Kildare was also rescued from the rebels by sir James Duff, on the 29th of May, after an action in which 200 of the insurgents were killed.

It was, however, in the counties of Wicklow and Wexford that the rebellion raged with the greatest violence. On the 25th of May they appeared in great force, supposed to the amount of 15,000 strong, in the neighbourhood of Wexford and Enniscorthy, which is situated on the river Slaney, about 12 miles distant from Wexford. A party of the North Cork militia were ordered out from Wexford, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Foot, and major Lombard, to meet the party of rebels, which was advancing towards that place. They marched to a place called Oulard, where they were met by the insurgents in great force. The ground where the king's forces took post was so unfavourable, that, after firing three rounds, the whole party was surrounded and cut to pieces, except colonel Foote and two privates, who alone escaped.

Flushed with this success, the

rebels, on the 28th, made an attack on the town of Enniscorthy, which they carried sword in hand, with the loss however of 500 men. "The loyalists," it is said, "would have repulsed the rebels, had not the catholic inhabitants treacherously set fire to the town, to smother the troops who were defending it*." The mode in which the insurgents made their attack is said, on the same authority, to have been by driving an immense number of horses and cattle before them to disorder the ranks of the loyalists, and throw them into confusion.

On the 29th, a small reinforcement of the Donegal militia arrived in Wexford; but a party of the Meath militia, with three howitzers, advancing on the same service, fell into the hands of the rebels. On the preceding day, however, the Cork and Donegal militia, who were in Wexford, marched out to a place called the Three Rocks, to meet the rebels; but they found them in such force, that, after some firing, they were obliged to retreat, and re-enter the town. There were, at this period, confined in the gaol of Wexford, where they had been committed on the 26th, on treasonable charges, Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, Mr. Edward Fitzgerald, and Mr. J. Colclough; the former a protestant, and we believe educated to the bar; the latter Roman-catholics; but all of them men of fortune, and of considerable interest in the county. The majority of the protestant inhabitants, who were not on military service, with numbers of the women and children, had got on board the vessels in the harbour, in order to effect their escape to some

* See a Narrative of the Sufferings and Escape of Charles Jackson.

part of England or Wales. Those who remained on the 30th of May assembled in council with the principal officers, for the melancholy purpose of deliberating on the best mode of treating with the rebels; and it was determined that two gentlemen, Mr. Richards, a barrister; and Dr. Jacob, a physician, who was at that time mayor of the town; should proceed to the rebel camp, and make the best conditions they were able with respect to the lives and properties of the inhabitants. In the mean time the troops and some of the women effected their escape to Duncannon fort, which was distant about twenty miles. At about one o'clock that day the white flag was displayed on the town-house, and the vessels in the harbour were ordered back to the quay, having been unable to sail. A scene of abominable tumult and disorder ensued on the rebels gaining possession of the town; the houses of the protestants were ransacked, and their inhabitants, or the majority of them, cast into prison. The gentlemen, whom we just now mentioned as having been confined on treasonable charges, were liberated, and Mr. B. Harvey was nominated to the chief command of the rebel army.

After leaving a large garrison in the town, the rebel army marched, under the command of Mr. Harvey, to the attack of New Ross, where major-general Johnson was posted with a considerable force. The town was regularly summoned by Harvey, who now assumed the character of general; and, on the morning of the 31st of June, it was attacked with great impetuosity; but, after a contest of several hours, the rebels were completely repulsed; and late in the evening

they retired to Carrickburne, leaving behind them several iron ship-guns, which appear to be the only artillery with which they were provided on this occasion. The slaughter of the rebels was prodigious; the king's troops lost about ninety men killed, among whom was lord Mountjoy, colonel of the county of Dublin militia, and about 130 in wounded and missing. It is shocking to relate, that in revenge for this miscarriage, the rebels in Wexford massacred, in cold blood, ten of the unfortunate protestants of Enniscorthy, who were imprisoned in Wexford gaol. Ninety-five of the loyalists of Wexford were, in a few days after, taken out of the prison, and wantonly and barbarously murdered on the bridge, by the rebels.

In the mean time, another party of the county of Wexford rebels attacked the small town of Gorey, but were repulsed; and another party from Vinegar-hill, a strong station within a mile of Enniscorthy, proceeded on the 1st of June to Newtown Barry. They surrounded the town in such a manner, that colonel Lestrange of the King's County militia, who commanded there, was obliged at first to retreat, in order to collect his forces. He then attacked the rebels, and drove them through the town with great slaughter, their loss being computed at 500 killed; while colonel Lestrange's whole force was, at least, 100 men short of that number.

These successes were, in some measure, counterbalanced by a check which the royal forces experienced on the 4th of June. Colonel Walpole, on that day, attacked a strong post of the rebels, near the Slievebay mountain. In the beginning of the action, the com-

commander was unfortunately killed by a shot in the head; and his corps, being in a situation where it could not act with advantage, was forced to retire to Arklow, with the loss of 54 men killed, and two six-pounders. Encouraged by this success, the rebel army, on the 9th of June, presented itself before Arklow, where general Needham commanded a considerable body of the king's forces. They approached, in two strong columns, from the Coolgrenny-road along the sand hills, while the whole of the intermediate space was crowded by a rabble, armed with pikes and fire-arms, and bearing down without any regular order. The position general Needham had chosen was a very strong one, in front of the barrack. As soon as the enemy approached within a short distance, he opened a very heavy fire of grape-shot, which, he observes, did as much execution as, from the nature of the ground, and the strong fences of which the rebels possessed themselves, could have been expected. This continued incessantly for two hours and a half, when the enemy at length desisted from their attack, and fled in disorder on every side. The rebels, as usual, lost a great number, while the loss of his majesty's forces was inconsiderable.

Hitherto the king's troops had been able to act only on the defensive; but general Lake now began to advance towards the seat of the rebellion in the south, with large reinforcements. On the 11th of June, major-general sir Charles Asgil attacked a rebel camp at the Boar, near Ross, which he dispersed.—Fifty of the rebels, with their leader, were left dead on the field of battle. The main body of the rebels still retained their strong position on Vinegar-hill; a position

from which they could not have been dislodged, had they been well provisioned, and possessed of sufficient military skill. General Lake, aware of the difficulties he had to encounter, of the great disadvantage of a repulse, and desirous of terminating the war in this quarter of Ireland, if possible, at one decisive blow, made his approaches quietly, and with great caution.—A cordon of troops was gradually collected from different quarters, which almost surrounded the rebel station. The 21st of June was destined for the grand attack, which the commander in chief, general Lake, ordered to be made, in several columns, under generals Dundas, Johnson, Eustace, Duff, and Loftus. The rebels maintained their ground obstinately for an hour and a half; but at length, sensible of the danger of being surrounded, they fled with precipitation. The slaughter must have been very great, though general Lake, in his dispatches, said it could not then be ascertained. The rebels lost thirteen small pieces of ordnance, of different calibres.

Immediately after this action, a large body of the king's forces advanced to Wexford, which general Moore entered so opportunely as to prevent the town from being laid in ashes. Previous to evacuating the place, the insurgents endeavoured to treat. Captain Keughe, who had served with credit in the American war, and had risen from the ranks to the station of a commissioned officer, had been appointed by the rebels the governor of Wexford. On the approach of the king's troops, a captain Macmanus, of the Antrim militia, who had been taken prisoner in one of the actions in which the insurgents had been successful, and a captain Hay,
who

who had been taken in a sloop with Lord Kingsborough in endeavouring to join their regiment (the Cork), were dispatched by Keughe, with offers to deliver up the town, provided all concerned in the insurrection should have their persons and properties guaranteed by the commanding officer. General Lake, however, only replied, that he could not attend to any terms offered by rebels in arms against their sovereign. To the deluded multitude only he promised pardon, on condition of their delivering up their leaders, and returning with sincerity to their allegiance. On receiving this answer, the rebel troops evacuated the town, which was peaceably taken possession of by his majesty's forces on the 22d of June.

Mr. Bagenal Harvey and Mr. Colclough quitted the rebel army

soon after the battle of Ross, disgusted, as they declared in their last moments, with the cruelties and oppression which had been exercised on such protestants and loyalists as fell into the hands of the rebellious mob. They were discovered, and taken in a cave on one of the Saltee islands (or rather rocks) which lie in the entrance of Wexford harbour, on the 26th of June*; and with Keughe, the rebel governor, and Cornelius Grogan, a very opulent and penurious old gentleman, who declared he had been forced to join the rebels, and some others, were tried by a court-martial, and executed on the bridge of Wexford.

The conduct of the rebels, even independent of the massacre of the prisoners, was extremely censurable, while the rebellion raged in the

* On their landing, Mr. Harvey appeared to be very much dejected, and scarcely spoke to any one. Mr. Colclough, on the contrary, seemed to be in very good spirits. On hearing many persons inquiring which was Mr. Harvey, and which Mr. Colclough, he pulled off his hat, and, bowing in the most polite manner, said, "Gentlemen, my name is Colclough." They were then both taken to the gaol. Some of the soldiers, who had been of the party sent to the Saltee-islands to apprehend Mr. Harvey and Mr. Colclough, informed me, that when they came to the island, they found but one house upon it, in which lived an old man and his family; that, upon their landing, they heard somebody holla, as if to give warning to others, and they then saw the old man run across a field into his house.—The soldiers followed him, and endeavoured, by every entreaty, to prevail upon him to discover to them the place where the fugitives were concealed, but without effect. Finding they could obtain no intelligence by this mode of address, and having certain information that the persons they sought for were there, they tied him up and gave him two dozen lashes, when he acknowledged that Mr. Colclough and Mr. Harvey were in a cave in a rock close to the sea-side. He then conducted the soldiers to the other side of the island, where they found the cave; but it was so situated that it was impossible to approach the fugitives without a great deal of trouble and danger. It was then thought most prudent to call to Mr. Harvey, who making no answer, the commander of the party told those within, that all resistance was vain, that he had a large body of men with him, and should immediately order them to fire into the cave, if those who were concealed there did not come out. On this, Mr. Colclough appeared, and both he and Mr. Harvey surrendered themselves. The soldiers were of opinion, that if he had defended himself, by firing through the chinks of the rocks, he might have killed several of them before they could possibly have shot at him with any effect. When he was taken, he had an old musket, a pocket-pistol, and two cutlasses. Mrs. Colclough was with them. There was a very neat feather-bed, blanket, and sheets, in the cave, and a keg of whiskey; also a jar of wine, a tub of butter, and some biscuits; a large pound-cake, that weighed above twenty pounds; a live sheep, and a crock of pickled pork; also tea, sugar, &c. Two chests of plate were also found near the cave. These were brought in the boat to town, and placed under the care of a magistrate. Mrs. Colclough was not brought to Wexford with her husband and Mr. Harvey.

Jackson's Narrative, p. 48.

county

county of Wexford. At Scollobogue, about eleven miles from Wexford, a number of protestant prisoners were massacred, with many circumstances of barbarity; and at the same place a barn was afterwards set on fire where the protestants were confined, and upwards of 100 were burned or suffocated; the wretched victims who attempted to escape through a small window being received on the pikes of the rebels, and thrown back into the flames. An almost indiscriminate system of plunder prevailed; nor were the leaders able to preserve the least order or discipline among their fanatical and licentious followers. It is a remarkable

circumstance, that though the chiefs of the united Irishmen were evidently hostile to all religious establishments, the people were directly the contrary, and the majority of them engaged in the cause professedly, because they believed "that the heretics, who had reigned upwards of one hundred years, were now to be extirpated, and the true catholic religion established." Such protestants as joined the rebel army were obliged to be baptised in the Romish chapels; and even Mr. Harvey, and the other chieftains, were compelled to attend mass, and, at least outwardly, to conform to the rites of that religion*.

Though the North had been the first

* County of Wexford, }
to wit. }

Richard Grandy, of Ballyfraco, in the county of Wexford, farmer, came this day before us his majesty's justices of the peace for the said county, and maketh oath upon the Holy Evangelists, that he this examinant was attacked and seized at the cross roads of Kilbride in said county, on Sunday the third day of June instant, between the hours of nine and ten o'clock in the morning, as he was returning from a farm he had on the lands of Kilbride, by several persons armed with guns, pikes, and spears; that amongst the number were Michael Poor, Thomas Poor, Martin White, Richard Shee, Martin Cothoun, Nicholas Browne, Michael White, John Moran, and Laurence Moran, all of Kilbride aforesaid, with many others, whose names this deponent knows not, though their faces were very familiar to him; that examinant was conducted from thence to the rebel camp at Carrick Byrne, in said county, and in the afternoon of same day was brought to Mr. King's house at Schollebogue in said county; that he was introduced into a room where he saw Bagenal Harvey, of Bally Castle in said county, esq.; William Devereux of Taghmon in said county, farmer; Francis Brien of Taghmon; and Nicholas Sweetman of New Bawne in said county, with a few more, whom deponent did not know, but believes that John Colclough of Ballytiegue in said county, and a son of said William Devereux, were of the number; that deponent was closely examined by said Bagenal Harvey, as to the state of Ross and Duncannon forts, and whether he was an orange man or an united man; that said Bagenal Harvey proffered him to take the oath of an united Irishman, and become one of their community; that at last deponent obtained a pass from said Bagenal Harvey, with which he came as far as Bryanstown, where he was stopped by the guard of rebels who were stationed there; that he was conducted back again to Collop's Well, where he met with said Bagenal Harvey and said Nicholas Sweetman; that said Nicholas Sweetman signed the pass he had got from said Harvey; that he had not gone far before the pass had been taken from him and torn, upon which deponent was taken prisoner to Scollobogue House, where he was confined till the Tuesday morning following, with many other protestants; that about nine o'clock John Murphy of Longhageer in said county, who had the command of the Rosegard rebel corps, and was the officer of the guard over the prisoners, had ordered them out by fours to be shot by his company of rebels, till thirty-five were massacred: that the rebel spearmen used to take pleasure in piercing the victims through with their spears, and, in exultation, licking their bloody spears; that while this horrid scene was acting, the barn at said Scollobogue, in which were above one hundred protestants (as deponent heard and believes), was set on fire and all consumed to ashes; that examinant's life was spared because said Murphy knew said

Bagenal

first focus of sedition in the kingdom, yet, as was before remarked, they were neither so forward in their operations, nor were the movements of the rebels so formidable in that quarter as in the South. For this, various reasons have been

assigned. It has been said, that the protestants of Ulster began before this crisis to distrust the views of the catholics. Perhaps a more satisfactory reason is, that the views and attention of government were more particularly directed to this part of the

Bagenal Harvey had given him a pass; and through his intercession with said Murphy, Loitus Fressel was likewise spared; sayeth, they were both tied and conveyed within a mile of Rofs, where they met said Bagenal Harvey, Cornelius Grogan of Johnstown in said county, esq., said William Devereux, and many others, unknown to deponent, retreating from the battle of Rofs; saith that said Bagenal Harvey ordered said Murphy to take the prisoners to his lodging at Collop's Well, where he gave a pass to Loitus Fressel, but refused to give one to deponent, lest he should go to Duncannon Fort, and report what deponent had heard and seen; saith that he heard and believes it to be a fact, that said Cornelius Grogan had the command of the barony of Fort rebel troops at the battle of Rofs; saith that he was taken to Foulke's Mill in said county that night, where he continued for two days under a guard dressing the wounded; that he was afterwards conveyed to Ballymitty in said county, when he obtained a pass from Edward Murphy, parish priest of said place, to pass and re-pass through his district for the purpose of curing the wounded; saith that he was sent to Taghmon, where the sitting rebel magistrates, John Brien, James Harpar, Joseph Cullamore, and Matthew Commons, were of opinion that deponent might, with the priest's pass, have gone back again and remain there; saith that he strolled along the sea-side under the protection of this pass, till at last he effected his escape across the ferry of Bannow to Feathard, on Friday evening the 22d instant, and from thence to Duncannon Fort this morning; saith that he often heard it reported while he was in custody, that John Colclough and Thomas M^cLeard, both of Tintern in said county, were very active in promoting the rebellion; and further saith, that he saw John Devereux of Shalbeggan in said county, jun., at Scollobogue, on Monday the 4th instant, and that he seemed, and he verily believeth he had a principal command in the rebel army; saith that he likewise saw Charles Reily of Ramfrange in said county, at the said camp at Carrick Byrne, amongst the rebels, very busy and active to promote their cause; deponent further saith, that he attended mass celebrated by Edward Murphy, parish priest of Bannow; that after mass he heard said Murphy preach a sermon, in which he said, "Brethren, you see you are victorious every where, that the balls of the heretics fly about you without hurting you; that few of you have fallen, whilst thousands of the heretics are dead, and the few that have fallen was from deviating from our cause, and want of faith; that this visibly is the work of God, who now is determined that the heretics, who have now reigned upwards of one hundred years, should be now extirpated, and the true catholic religion established." And deponent saith this sermon was preached after the battle of Rofs, and saith he has heard several sermons preached by the priests to same effect; and further saith, that he has heard several of the rebels who had been at the battle of Enniscorthy, and elsewhere, declare, that Edward Roche the priest did constantly catch the bullets that came from his majesty's army in his hand, and give them to the rebels to load their guns with; deponent further saith that any protestant who was admitted into the rebel army was first baptised by a Roman-catholic priest, and that every protestant who refused to be baptised was put to death, and that many to save their lives suffered themselves to be baptised.

Sworn before us his majesty's justices of the peace for said county, this 23d day of June 1798, at Duncannon Fort.

Bound in the sum of two hundred pounds to prosecute, when called on, this examination with effect.

{ GEORGE OGLE,
ISAAC CORNOCK,
JOHN HENRY LYSTER,
JOHN KENNEDY.

RICHARD GRANDY.

(A Copy.)

Report of the House of Commons, App. XXXV.

Whatever

the kingdom; more troops were maintained there, and greater vigilance and circumspection were used by the officers, and other persons employed to quell the rebellion. In the counties of Down and Antrim, however, some alarming commotions were observed about the beginning of June. On the 7th of that month, general Nugent, who commanded at Belfast, received information of an intended insurrection in the county of Antrim, which had for its first object the seizure of the magistrates, who were to meet that day at the county-

Whatever might have been the real views of the politicians whose harangues and writings tended to produce this dreadful rebellion, which, professedly, they denominated reform, toleration, &c. the very reverse would have been the effect of it. The intolerant prejudices of the catholics, it was soon proved, had no bounds. The extinction of the protestant religion was the favourite idea of the great mass of the rebels, and their strongest motive to action. Reform was never thought of by them, nothing less than breaking off all connexion with England, and a total change of the established government in Ireland; and even an expectation of being able to attack England as an enemy was warmly encouraged by them. So far from toleration in religious matters being allowed, Mr. Bagenal Harvey, and their other protestant leaders, thought it prudent to attend mass in their camps.

In the town of Wexford, protestant men and women were obliged to recant; and, with their children, were required to be baptised in the catholic chapel, after the Roman-catholic manner, and to attend mass. Even the protection, granted by the priests to the protestant men and women, after they had been thus baptised, was 'Protect, in the name of Jesus Christ, A. B. he or she having been made a christian, and a member of the catholic church.' (Signed by the priest.) But here I must, in justice to many excellent priests, make a distinction between them and such others as fomented the disturbances. It was not by desire of the priests of the town of Wexford, that the protestants were forced to yield to this necessity; but it was owing to the ferocity of the mob, who could not bear the name of a protestant. The conduct of the Roman-catholic clergy of Wexford cannot be too much commended. Dr. Caulfield, the titular bishop of Leighlin and Ferns, Father Curran, Father Bore, and, indeed, the whole of the priests and friars of that town, on all occasions, used their interest and exerted their abilities in the cause of humanity. Every Sunday, after mass, they addressed their audience, and implored them, in the most earnest manner, not to ill-treat their prisoners, and not to have upon their consciences the reflection of having shed innocent blood.

I wish I could, with truth, speak as favourably of other descriptions of the catholic priests, as I am bound to do of those of the town of Wexford; but greater monsters of iniquity than some of the country-priests I believe never existed. Every deception that could influence the minds of the infatuated people was practised by them. It will hardly be credited, in this country, that thousands of the Irish are in such a state of ignorance as easily to believe the most extravagant reports and delusions. At the battle of Three Rocks, before the town of Wexford was taken by the rebels, a priest, of the name of Murphy, marched at their head, telling them to follow him, and not to fear; for, if they took up the dust from the roads, and threw it at the king's troops, they would fall dead before them. The rebel-camps were constantly attended by numbers of these priests, saying mass every day, and pretending to give charms which would prevent the balls of the soldiers from injuring them. To this cause principally may be attributed the undaunted manner in which the rebels often faced the cannon. You might see hundreds of them, with cords round their waists, on which were seven knots, which they were persuaded to believe would effectually preserve them in the day of battle. That no compunction might rise in their breasts, on account of the murders they were daily committing, their priests assured them it was ordained by God; and that it had been prophesied there should be but one religion, and that was to be the Roman-catholic; so that, in destroying the protestants, they were performing a duty to heaven. It may here be asked, Were there no protestants among the rebels? I answer, Some few protestants there were; and they found it necessary to assent and to accommodate themselves to the humours, the prejudices, the views, and cruelties, of the mob of catholics, and by that means prevented dissension.

Jackson's Narrative, p. 36, &c.
TOWN.

town. The intelligence was however not received sufficiently early to prevent the insurgents from taking possession of Antrim; but the general lost no time in ordering a considerable force to proceed to Antrim through Lisburn, under colonels Clavering and Lumley; while another party, under colonel Durham, was dispatched to the same place through Carmoney and Templepatrick. The dragoons who arrived first under colonel Lumley were fired at from the houses, and obliged to retreat, with the loss of three officers and two curriele fix-pounds. Colonel Clavering, on his arrival, finding the rebels pouring into the town in great force, judiciously took post on a hill on the Lisburn side. In the mean time, colonel Durham, with his detachment, advanced within half-a-mile of Antrim, and, after a cannonade of half-an-hour, drove the rebels from the town, and pursued them as far as Loane's castle and Randel's town. At the same time, a party of the rebels were repulsed from Carrickfergus; but a party of the Toome yeomanry were made prisoners by the insurgents at Toome bridge. We have no return of the loss of the rebels in the engagement at Antrim: but, on the part of the king's troops, several were killed, and lord O'Neil, and some other officers and men, dangerously wounded.

The insurrection now became almost general throughout the counties of Down and Antrim; but on the 12th of June the rebels received a complete defeat at Ballynahinch, where they lost upwards of 400 men. On the part of the king's troops, the loss was only five rank and file, and one officer killed, and fourteen wounded. The rebels, however, disputed the ground with

great obstinacy. Their leader, Munro, would have been delivered up by the treachery of some of his accomplices, but he was taken prisoner in the action and executed.

Though not dissatisfied with the conduct of lord Camden, the English government, considering the state of Ireland as more desperate than perhaps it really was, determined to give to the sister kingdom a military lord-lieutenant. The marquis Cornwallis arrived at Dublin in that capacity on the 20th of June, and immediately assumed the reins of government.—The conduct of his lordship was on the whole judicious.—On the 17th of July, he sent a message to the house of commons by lord Castlereagh, intimating that he had received his majesty's command to acquaint them—"that he had signified his gracious intention of granting a general pardon for all offences committed, on or before a certain day, upon such conditions, and with such exceptions, as might be compatible with the general safety." But "these offers of mercy to the repentent were not to preclude measures of vigour against the obstinate."

In the mean time a special commission was opened in Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents. Messrs. John and Henry Sheares, McCann, the secretary to the provincial meeting, and Mr. W. M. Byrne, an active member of the society of united Irishmen, were all tried and executed. Mr. Oliver Bond was tried on the 23d of July, convicted, and condemned; and in his fate the other conspirators now began to read and foresee their own. The rebellion was now apparently crushed. The people were every where returning in numbers to their allegiance, and

delivering up their arms. — Their hopes from France had been miserably disappointed; and nothing appeared before their eyes but individual destruction, without having effected any one purpose for which they had associated. Thus prepared for submission, and for the disclosure of the destructive plans in which they had been engaged, a negotiation was happily opened between the Irish government and the state delinquents. The circumstances which led to this treaty have never been published by authority; but we have reason to think, that our information on the whole is not incorrect. As Mr. Bond was highly and respectably connected, great interest was made from different quarters to save his life. We believe it was then intimated on the part of government, that if Mr. Bond would consent to give to administration all the information of which he was possessed relative to the conspiracy and the rebellion, his sentence might be commuted for that of banishment. Mr. Bond, we have understood, at first rejected this proposal, if his information or evidence should endanger the life of any man with whom he was connected. The scheme of mercy was then extended, it is said, on the part of government, to the whole of the state prisoners; and in the mean time Mr. Bond was indulged with a respite. After some negotiation therefore, in which it is said Mr. Dobbs, a member of the Irish parliament, took a very humane and active part, the whole of the state prisoners, including the two O'Connors, counsellor Emmett, Dr. M^r Nevin, and Mr. Neilson, consented to give to the government every information in their power,

on the conditions that they should be at liberty voluntarily to transport themselves to any country not at war with his majesty; that Mr. Bond* should receive a pardon on the same condition; and that no further prosecutions should be carried on upon the score of the conspiracy, except against actual murderers, or such rebels as should hereafter be taken in arms. The interesting information communicated by these gentlemen has been consolidated in the report which, on the 21st of August, was presented to the house of commons by lord viscount Castlereagh, and the substance of it has already been detailed with other matter in the preceding part of this chapter.

The system of moderation and mercy pursued by lord Cornwallis appeared peculiarly seasonable at this crisis, and was apparently attended with the happiest effects. The system of military law and military execution was relaxed throughout all those parts of the kingdom where the flames of rebellion appeared to be extinguished. In one instance, indeed, his lordship gave some offence to the more violent partisans of government, while his conduct had the praise of every friend of justice and humanity. — A yeoman was tried by a court-martial for the murder, in cold blood, of a person whom he asserted to have been a rebel. The yeoman was acquitted by the court martial, but on grounds so unsatisfactory, that his lordship publicly testified his disapprobation of the sentence, and dissolved the court-martial. How far the passing a bill of attainder, and forfeiture of the estates of lord Edward Fitzgerald, Mr. B. Harvey,

* He did not survive his pardon above a few days.

and Mr. Grogan, may hereafter be considered as in some degree a departure from this system of equity and moderation, we are unable to determine. Though justified by precedent, it may be questioned, whether to punish the children for the crimes of the parents be perfectly consistent with the mild and equitable spirit which otherwise animates the general system of British jurisprudence. The celebrated Irish advocate, Mr. Curran, in pleading against the bill, is said to have characterised it in his bold and energetic language as—"a measure of supplementary vengeance, seeking reprisals on the grave of the supposed culprit; and plundering the pittance of the widow, and the cradle of the orphan."

To compensate, however, for this solitary instance of severity, a bill of general amnesty was passed in the course of the session, with the exception only of Mr. Napper Tandy, and about thirty others, chiefly fugitives in France. A bill was also passed for granting compensation to such of his majesty's loyal subjects as had sustained losses in their property, in consequence of the late rebellion; and commissaries were named for carrying the same into effect.

After the signal defeat of the rebels at Vinegar-hill, and their consequent expulsion from Enniscorthy, Wexford, &c. a considerable number dispersed, and returned to their usual occupations. The more desperate retired to the mountainous parts of Wexford and Wicklow counties, where, for a while, they waged a desultory warfare—but in the course of a few weeks were completely subdued. On the 12th of July, however, a large body attacked the town of Clonard, but were repulsed with the loss of sixty

men, by colonel Blake. The rebel corps, after its defeat, moved towards Longwood, whence they were pursued almost to Culmullin, and about thirty were killed in the pursuit. The main body of rebels after this took post on a hill at Garretstown, whither general Myers directed his march, but found that they took advantage of the night to decamp. They at length took a strong position in the road to Ardee, where they seemed determined to make a stand; but as soon as the Sunderland regiment arrived with the battalion guns, they fell into confusion, and were driven into a bog, where great numbers were killed, and a quantity of pikes and muskets taken.

After these transactions, several of the rebel corps laid down their arms, and took the benefit of the amnesty, covenanting only for their chiefs, that they should be allowed to transport themselves to some country at peace with Great Britain.—Those who still resisted might rather be considered as small companies of banditti, who lurked in the woods and mountains, and committed nocturnal depredations, than as an embodied force.

It was happy for Great Britain and Ireland at this alarming crisis, that the French government was in the hands of the most incapable politicians, that, perhaps, Europe had ever seen upon the theatre of public affairs. They must have been acquainted well with the state in which Ireland was at this time.—Wexford was nearly three weeks in the possession of the insurgents, and their armies were, during the whole of that time, able to keep the field, and brave his majesty's forces.—Had the French directory embraced the opportunity, and pursued the plan which was laid

out for them by Lord Edward Fitzgerald and others of the nation in Ireland; had they risked a few frigates and light vessels, with a proper supply of officers, arms and ammunition, with a few troops to keep the insurgents in spirits, Ireland would have been lost for ever, and ultimately Great Britain itself, since, we are persuaded that, in the present state of Europe, both islands must stand or fall together. They are naturally united, and the interests of neither will bear a separation. Providence ordered it better; and ordained that from this moment, and by this one fatal oversight, the enormous fabric of French power, raised on the ruins of order and of justice, should now commence its decline, and should gradually moulder to ruin. With that kind of after-thought, that sluggish and wavering policy, which particularly marks weak and bad statesmen, the French, in the latter end of August, detached a small force to the north of Ireland, under the command of general Humbert, the man of the French guards (if we are not mistaken) who stands recorded in our volume for 1791 as having been one of the first to enter the towers of the Bastille on the memorable 14th of July, 1789. On the 22d of August, general Humbert landed at Killala, and the appearance of a French force excited, as might be expected, a general consternation throughout the kingdom. The numbers of the enemy were greatly exaggerated in the first accounts, and the invasion appeared in so formidable a light, that the lord lieutenant determined personally to take the field at the head of a considerable army. It is remarkable that the invaders were joined by very few of the natives: and those who did repair to their standard were soon

disgusted, as we have understood, since the strictness of French discipline but ill accorded with the licentiousness and disorder in which the Irish insurgents had been accustomed to indulge. The first movements of general Humbert proved him a consummate officer, and worthy of a great command. Though the British force, which was to impede his progress, was not contemptible, he judiciously saw that to advance with confidence was essential to his future success. He proceeded, therefore, without loss of time to Castlebar, where general Lake was collecting his forces. On the 27th, he attacked the British general, and forced him to retreat with the loss of six pieces of cannon, and a few men. The force under general Lake has been variously stated; it was at first represented as amounting to 6,000 men, which number was afterwards reduced to about 1,000. The London Gazette says, general Lake "had not yet collected his forces;" yet it is hardly probable, that an officer so high in command should take a station so near the enemy with a very contemptible force. After this success, the French advanced towards Tuam; but their triumph was not of long duration; for on the 7th of September, the marquis Cornwallis came up with them in the vicinity of Castlebar, and obliged them to make a retrograde movement before day-break the following morning. The French general made a circuitous march to favour the flight of the rebel Irish, the majority of whom escaped by this manœuvre. A column of general Lake's army, however, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Crawford, overtook the rear guard of the French, at Ballinamuck, at about seven o'clock in the morning

ing of the 8th, and summoned them to surrender; but as they did not attend to the summons, they were attacked by the British forces, when about 200 of the French infantry threw down their arms, expecting their example to be followed by the rest of their comrades. On general Craddock, and some other British officers advancing towards them, however, the enemy commenced a fire of cannon and musquetry, which wounded general Craddock, upon which General Lake ordered up a fresh reinforcement, and commenced an attack on every part of their position. The action then lasted half an hour, when the remainder of the British column making its appearance, the French surrendered at discretion. General Lake adds, "that the rebels who fled in all directions suffered severely." The loss of the British, in this action, was only three killed, and about sixteen wounded and missing. When the return of French prisoners was made, the public were surprised to find that this formidable host amounted to no more, including officers, than the contemptible number of eight hundred and forty-four. Three rebel officers, who had assumed the title of generals, fell into the hands of the victors; their names were Blake, Roach, and Teeling; about ninety-three of the insurgents, besides, were made prisoners. It has been said, that four of the rebels, who joined the invaders, were hanged at Castlebar for plundering, by the command of Humbert; and that one of the rebels, who attempted to massacre the prisoners, was cut down by the French.

What success the French directory could promise themselves from so contemptible a force is not easy

to conjecture; but that they did flatter themselves with some effects advantageous to their cause is evident; for on the 16th of September a French brig appeared off the little island of Rutland, on the north-west coast of Donegal. About eight o'clock the crew landed, and with them general Rey, and the celebrated Nanper Tandy, invested with the title of general of brigade in the French service. They anxiously inquired after the fate of the French army which had landed at Killala, and, strange as it may appear, seemed disconcerted on hearing of their defeat. They next distributed some manifestoes among the country people; but the Irish had already suffered too much by their reliance upon Gallic faith, and were not too easily to be led into insurrection. Thus disappointed in every view, the enemy reembarked, and immediately quitted the Irish coast.

A more serious attempt was soon after made by the enemy; but, like all their operations, it was ill timed and ill concerted; it was not made till the alarm was given, and when the Irish coast was closely guarded by the British navy. In the latter end of September, a squadron sailed from Brest, consisting of one ship of the line, the *Hoc*, and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board, destined for Ireland. On the 11th of October they were defeated by the British squadron, under sir John Borlase Warren, which consisted of the *Canada*, *Robust*, *Foudroyant*, *Magnanime*, *Æthalion*, *Melampus*, and *Amelia*; and which, in the latter part of the action, were joined by the *Anson*. At half past seven, on the morning of the 12th, the action commenced; and at eleven, the *Hoc*, after a gallant

defence, struck: the frigates then made sail from the British squadron, and the signal for a general chase was immediately made by the admiral. After a running fight of five hours, three of the frigates were captured in the course of the day, and three others afterwards became prizes. Thus the whole squadron, two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the British; and the hopes of the French, as well as of the malcontents in Ireland, were thus completely defeated.

Among the prisoners taken in the *Hoche* was the famous and unfortunate Theobald Wolfe Tone, so long considered as the most active and able negotiator among the Irish fugitives at Paris, and as the great adviser of most of the measures pursued by his rebellious countrymen. He was brought to Dublin, and tried by a court-martial there; and in a most manly defence attempted neither to deny nor excuse his offence. The plea on which he rested was that of being a denizen of France, and an officer in the service of the republic. When he found that this plea did not avail, he requested that he might die like a soldier, and not as a felon; and be shot, according to military usage, rather than hanged. The court, however, did not accede to his request, and the unhappy delinquent cut his throat in the prison. The wound was at first supposed not to be mortal; but, after languishing a short time, it terminated his existence. On the morning after he had made the attempt upon his life, Mr. Curran exerted his great talents in moving the King's-bench for a *habeas corpus*, upon this ground—"That court-martials had no jurisdiction over subjects

not in military service, while the court of King's-bench was sitting." The plea was, after a full hearing, allowed by the court, and the writ was ordered to be made out immediately; but on the arrival of the messenger at the prison, the unhappy man was found not in a condition to be moved with safety. The writ, however, was obeyed by the military, and the execution, which was to have taken place that morning, was suspended.

The rebellion itself did not long survive Mr. Tone, who, we have already seen, might be considered as the original projector of that formidable society which gave it birth. The few companies of rebels who lurked in the woods and mountains, dispirited totally by the ill-success of their allies, and dreading the approach of winter, successively laid down their arms. The last of their chieftains, who surrendered to government, was Holt, a man of mean origin, but of great spirit and enterprise. In the mountainous parts of Wicklow, he maintained, notwithstanding the failure of his confederates, a desultory warfare till after the defeat of the French under Humbert. It is believed that he at last made terms with government; but the utmost he could obtain was to save his life by relinquishing his native soil for ever.

By a calculation, which appears to be tolerably correct, upwards of 30,000 persons are supposed to have lost their lives in this deplorable contest, independent of those who were wounded, and of those who were transported or sent on board the fleet. Whatever might have been the occasional or even unjustifiable severities exercised upon suspected individuals, we must, in candour, acquit the Irish govern-

vernment of the charge which has, we think, rashly been brought against them, "of having goaded the people into rebellion." The rebellion was evidently the result of a deep conspiracy laid by a few ambitious and disaffected persons, who insidiously wrought upon the passions and prejudices of the lower orders of catholics to promote their own destructive designs. There is much reason to believe that the eyes of the people are now open to the mischiefs into which they had been seduced; and it only remains for government to sway the sceptre of authority with temperance, and properly to blend conciliation with a firm and not timid conduct. The path of peace and prosperity, we now think, is laid open to both parties; and, we trust, they will keep it. As a sovereign remedy for similar disorders, a legislative union of the two kingdoms has been recommended. We own ourselves partial to a unity of government; and we can see that the plan might ultimately be attended with some advantages; but those advantages are certainly remote, and they cannot be worth the risk of the smallest disturbance or discontent among the people. With respect to the immediate object, we cannot discover in what way a legislative union can be a means of preventing the revival of the scenes which we have now been reviewing. It cannot remove the prejudices of the catholics; it cannot enlighten the people, or relieve them from their burdens. It may indeed, on the contrary, for the moment, tend to increase one of the principal

grievances of which the Irish at present complain,—the expenditure of Irish property at a distance from the country, where that property is acquired. We think, in fine, that there are other measures which would be much more effectual than this in promoting the peace, tranquillity, and welfare of Ireland. If it were possible to promote, by any means, the transfer of capital to the Irish coast, and to excite in the people the spirit of commerce and manufactures; if some commercial concessions could be made by the opulence of Britain to the poverty of Ireland; if schools could be established for the promotion at once of knowledge and industry; if the gentry of Ireland could be persuaded to embody themselves in a patriotic union for the protection and the aid of the poor; if they could follow the example of a society in this kingdom, whose generous efforts in the cause of humanity are above our praise, "the society for bettering the condition of the poor;" and if they could reduce to practice some of the judicious speculations of that society, we are persuaded they would effect more towards reconciling the minds of the people to order and subjection than any experiment on the constitution and the government. We have had enough of innovation; and, however salutary the plan, we are persuaded, that in the present temper and condition of the Irish people, "this is not," to use the language of the British minister on another occasion, "this is not the time for reform."

CHAP. VIII.

Retrospect of Continental Affairs during the preceding Year. State of the belligerent Powers on the Rhine on the Opening of the Year 1797. Siege and Capitulation of the Fort opposite Huningue. State of the Austrian and French Armies in Italy. New and extraordinary Levies of Austrian Troops. March of the Papal Troops to the Aid of General Wurmser. Supposed Hostility of the Venetian Government. The French take Possession of Bergamo. Preparations made by Buonaparte. Attack of the Austrians under Alvinci, and Repulse of the French to the Adige. Positions of Buonaparte. Battle of Rivoli. Success of the Austrians. Perilous Situation of Buonaparte, and of the left Wing of the French. Defeat of the right Wing of the Austrians. Battle of Porto Legnaro. Defeat of the right Wing of the French. Provera's Progress towards Mantua. Rout of the right Wing of the Austrian Army. Attack of Provera on the Forts before Mantua. Sortie of the Garrison under General Wurmser. Defeat and Surrender of the left Wing of the Austrian Army under Provera. Destruction of the fifth Austrian Army in Italy by the French. Situation of Affairs in the French Republic. State of the Finances—Of Parties—Factions. Supposed Royalist Plot. Plan of the Conspiracy. Arrest of the Conspirators. Trial and Conviction of the Chiefs before a Military Commission. Effects of the Lenity of the Commission on the different Parties. Mysterious Conduct and Policy of the Directory. Confession of the Chiefs of the Conspiracy. Pursuit of the Remains of the Austrian Army, by the French, into the Venetian Territory. Surrender of Mantua. Preparations for the Invasion of the States of the Holy See. Intercepted Correspondence of the Papal Ministry. Manifesto and Proclamation of Buonaparte. Reflections on the Proclamation. Defeat of the Papal Troops. Surrender of various Cities. The miraculous Image of Loretto. Progress of the French Army towards Rome. Pope's Letter to Buonaparte with Offers of Peace. Conditions of the Peace. Buonaparte's Letter to the Pope. Negotiation between the French General and the Republic of St. Marino.

IN our last volume we promised a more ample and accurate detail of certain transactions of the French in Italy, than from the documents before us we were able at that time to lay before our readers. On a review of the whole campaign, we find the military movements of the French so much connected with the civil changes which they affected, and we find the official reports, from which our narrative last year was chiefly compiled, so defective, that we determined to lay before the public such a view of

the whole of these events, as, from the sources from which it is drawn, we can venture to pronounce at once correct and authentic.

The close of the year 1796 had been unfavourable to the arms of the French republic. The fort of Kehl, the only post which they held on the Upper Rhine, except the redoubt opposite Huningue, had fallen into the hands of the Imperialists; and the winds of heaven had visited their fleets in the expedition to the coasts of Ireland, so roughly, that all projects of fu-
ture

ture invasion were deferred to an indefinite period. Notwithstanding these defeats, the campaign, on the whole, had been highly prosperous, as the conquests in Italy had more than counterbalanced the success of the allied armies in the north. The glory which the archduke had acquired in repelling the invaders of Germany was diminished by the length of resistance made at Kehl, whilst Moreau had added greatly to his military reputation by the skill with which he had effected his retreat. The redoubt opposite to Huningue, which had been, for some time, besieged by the Austrians, had, since the capitulation of Kehl, become useless, as the whole of Suabia, and the country on the right of the Upper Rhine was in possession of the Imperialists.

General Moreau determined, nevertheless, to defend it to the last extremity, having judged that, by detaining the Austrian army on the Upper Rhine, he should prevent them from descending to force the French from the posts they held on the right side of the Lower Rhine, down to Dusseldorf; as well as contribute to weaken their strength, in which he had so eminently succeeded by his resistance at Kehl. The fort around which the Austrians were now assembling their forces consisted of works hastily thrown up after the passage of the French across the river at Huningue, when Moreau penetrated into Germany, and was called the head of the bridge, though no bridge existed. It had originally been a regular fortification, constructed by the celebrated Vauban; but as these works had been levelled at every successive peace, the head of the bridge presented no other

appearance, previous to the last passage of the French, than scattered heaps of ruins, along which the cattle fed.

An island that lay a few yards below Huningue, and which served as a communication with the works on the opposite side, was also fortified. These two works contained about three thousand men. The Austrians, after having cannonaded it for a considerable time, opened their trenches to reduce it in the regular forms. The French, by their frequent sallies, had considerably retarded their advances, and had even pushed their success so far in one sally as to drive the enemy back to their most distant batteries, filling up part of the third parallel which they had opened, spiking numbers of their cannon, and bringing away others, with the prisoners which they had made. What rendered the attack and defence of this place so remarkable is, that there is scarcely an instance in history where so great an expense in military stores, and so large a waste of life has been made for an object apparently so trifling. The Austrians having received considerable reinforcements, and having transported the greater part of their heavy artillery and mortars from Kehl, had constructed new batteries so near the works, that the French having neither the means of securing themselves from the bombs, nor of making the enemy, from the great superiority of their numbers, and their artillery, desist from the enterprise, agreed, on the 5th of February, to a capitulation, by which they left the assailants in possession of the works, almost reduced to ruins, after withdrawing every thing from thence, even to the fascines and palisades. The Imperialists

Imperialists afterwards reduced this place to its primitive state by levelling all that remained.

The affairs of the Austrians were less fortunate on the side of Italy. After the defeat of general Wurmser, and his retreat to Mantua, every nerve was strained to repair the immense losses which had been sustained during the former part of the campaign, and general Alvinzi found himself, in a short time, at the head of a body of forces far superior to those of the republic. The general had formed a comprehensive plan of attack from the mountains of the Tyrol to the Brenta, but frustrated in his designs by the activity of Buonaparte; he was defeated, as we have already related, in various previous combats, from the 8th to the 12th of December, and was totally routed on the 15th, 16th, and 17th of December, at the famous battle of Arcole.

The emperor, however, far from being discouraged, had made the greatest efforts to raise this new army; he had stripped the whole of his frontiers; the youth of Vienna had formed themselves into regiments of volunteers, and no exertions were spared to retrieve the tarnished glory of the Austrian arms, relieve Mantua, and drive the French from Italy. This new levy of 40,000 warriors, of no vulgar or ordinary character, advancing with new and formidable trains of artillery, and with no common rapidity in their movements, were animated with high hopes that the purpose for which they were assembled would be accomplished.

The court of Rome, so far as its power extended, contributed also its aid. The forces which the pope collected were not, indeed, formidable, either for military fame

or numbers; but such as they were, his holiness put them in march towards Romagna, to watch the states of Reggio, Ferrara, Bologna, and Modena, which had declared themselves independent; and also to favour the escape of general Wurmser into the Ferrarese, or into the pope's territories from Mantua, in case he should not be relieved, which was discovered by his intercepted correspondence.

The government of Venice had preserved, or affected a strict neutrality between the belligerent powers, though their adversaries assert that the assistance given to the Imperial troops, according to the report of the French generals, was neither trifling, nor concealed. The province of Bergamo, they say, had shown the greatest hostility. In the city of Bergamo, an anti-gallican committee had been formed, the cause of the Austrians was openly countenanced, and many of the French had been assassinated. Whether these charges were true or false, the French found it *convenient* (and that has ever been sufficient excuse for their rapacity) to seize on the citadel, which not only silenced the Bergamese committees, but served to keep up the communication between the rivers of the Adda and the Adige. Buonaparte, informed of the rapidity with which the armies of the emperor and the pope were collecting, pressed the arrival of the reinforcements which his government had promised him, and made the necessary dispositions to withstand the shock. In the mean time he drew from every division in his army a small number of troops, which he formed into a moving column at Bologna, and to which, from the variety of its motions, and its presence in different quarters,

quarters, he contrived to give the appearance of a much more considerable army. While he was organising his troops at Bologna, Alvinzi had apparently marshalled his army for a general attack on the whole of the French line along the Adige. The Austrians had succeeded in repulsing the French from the various positions they occupied on the right of the river (the 7th of January). They had previously been defeated at Bevilacqua by the Austrian column which marched from Padua, and had driven back their advanced guard on the Lower Adige under general Augereau.

The divisions that marched from Bassano had cleared the plains, and nearly reached the gates of Verona, when they were stopped by the division under general Massena, who, after a most obstinate conflict, in which great numbers were killed, succeeded in repelling the assailants. These attacks made by Alvinzi on the right and centre of the French line, though they were a prelude to some general engagement, left the French in great uncertainty respecting the intentions of the Austrian commander, who had so well concealed his movements, that Buonaparte was ignorant whether the great mass of the Imperial forces were assembled on the Lower Adige below Porto Legnano, with the intention of penetrating to Mantua on the right of his army, or on that part of the river near Rivoli, at forty miles distance from the former, where the left of the French army kept possession of the country between the Adige and the lake of Garda. In this uncertainty, Buonaparte, after leaving in the Cispadan provinces the troops necessary for their safety, visiting the blockade of Mantua, and reinforcing the divi-

sion of Augereau on the right with part of the moving column at Bologna, placed himself at Verona in the centre of his line to wait the event, and prepare himself for the irruption of the Austrians at whatever point they should make their attack.

While Alvinzi led the French to believe from the attacks he made on the right and centre of their line that his intention was to pierce by those points to Mantua, he had drawn off the main body of his forces towards their left on the Upper Adige. Had he succeeded in getting possession of the posts between this part of the river and the lake of Garda, he would have compelled the French to draw back their troops from the line of the Adige, abandoning Verona in their centre, and Porto Legnano on their right, and thereby would have afforded the means of throwing succours into Mantua, with the left division of his army under general Provera, who was waiting the result of the attack on the right, to put in execution this well-concerted plan. The attack made by the Austrian forces on the higher Adige was at first successful. General Joubert, who commanded in that quarter, was compelled to fall back before so immense a superiority of numbers: general Alvinzi, it has been already observed, having made this the principal point of attack, had not only weakened the other parts of his line to augment this division, but had strengthened himself by considerable reinforcements brought up from every quarter.

The important post of Corona, after an obstinate conflict, and repeated attacks, was taken by the Austrians, and the French were compelled to fall back to their principal post at Rivoli. The nature
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of this attack, and the numbers with which it was made, left no doubt in the mind of Buonaparte that this was the point by which Alvinzi meant to penetrate. Leaving Verona, after giving his instructions for the centre of his army, and also for the right of the line at Porto Legnano, and on the Lower Adige, where a continued and severe cannonade was kept up by the Austrian division under general Provéra, Buonaparte put in motion a part of the division of Massena, and drew off the troops which were posted behind him at Denzenzano, directing their march in different columns towards Rivoli.

On his arrival, having changed general Joubert's plan of defence into an attack, he ordered the various posts before Rivoli, which had been evacuated, to be retaken. The execution of this order, which began with skirmishes, brought on the decisive combat earlier than the Austrian general had intended, who calculated neither on the presence of Buonaparte, nor on the reinforcements which the French were about to receive in that quarter. Hitherto all had succeeded agreeably to Alvinzi's wishes. The division of his army, which had been selected for this enterprise, having, by forced marches, in which they had scaled mountains covered several feet deep with snow, and traversed a country rendered almost impracticable, had to far seconded the general's plan, that having driven back the French to Rivoli, being in possession of the most favourable position for the general attack the next day, by which he had the means of turning the left wing of the French, and drawing back their right; having also, during the night, taken every measure which could insure success, by organising

the mode of attack, so that the whole of his columns should act in concert; no doubt remained from the firmness which his troops had hitherto shown, that the enterprise would be crowned with success, and the victory be decisive.

Buonaparte's arrival deranged his operations; for although the French were still as disproportionate in numbers when they retreated to Rivoli, since the general had come unattended with troops, yet in expectation that the detachments made from the divisions at Verona and Denzenzano would arrive in time to second the operations, Buonaparte ordered the attack to be made on the 4th of January.

General Joubert, who had hitherto been repulsed by Alvinzi's army, advanced at the head of a part of his division at break of day, along the heights of St. Marco, the post of which had been retaken during the night; another part of his division occupied the centre, and the left was to be successively reinforced by the divisions drawn off from the centre of the main army, and from other posts.

The general action which took place was fought for a considerable length of time with desperate valour on both sides. The advantages were long balanced, and the victory uncertain. The French were frequently repulsed in endeavouring to turn the Austrian divisions; for although the situation of the country favoured their attempts, the superiority of numbers enabled the Austrians to render them fruitless, and even to drive back the right wing of the French. The left wing was also thrown into disorder, and lost ground. Alvinzi having been thus far successful in repulsing both wings of the French, bore down with the main body of his forces on their

their centre, and gave his left wing the means of advancing with twelve companies of infantry, and thirteen battalions, to the position which the French had occupied. The right wing of the French, thus repulsed by the left wing of the Austrians, fell back on their centre, where Buonaparte, with the division under Masséna, which had at this moment arrived from Verona, met the shock; and though he forced the assailants to retire, he could not repair the disorder of the right wing, which was compelled to take its position behind Rivoli; and this was effected not without considerable loss from the command which the Austrians had of the heights.

The head of the Austrian column having it now in their power to scale the entrenchments made on the road by the French, and even to penetrate, with a part of their cavalry, into the plains, there was no further obstacle to the re-union of the Austrian army in the rear, since the right division had also succeeded in turning the left division of the French.

The republican forces were therefore entirely surrounded, and their communication cut off with Verona and other parts of their army: their situation was therefore highly perilous. Wherever they cast their eyes, they beheld the enemy on every side. Buonaparte, who had fought the whole day in every direction, and was now driven to the centre, called his field-officers around him, and both armies seemed to wait in awful silence the event of the succeeding moments.

As the king of Prussia, at the battle of Cunnerdorf, in circumstances nearly similar, wrote to the queen at Berlin: "Madam, we have beat the Russians from their entrenchments; in two hours ex-

pect to hear of a glorious victory;" which was followed immediately by another courier, pressing her flight from Berlin with the royal family and the archives; so Alvinzi, equally confident of success, had dispatched a courier to Vienna, with news of the approaching capture of Buonaparte and the French army. The Austrians, from the heights which they occupied around, saluted the ears of the French with insulting invitations to surrender; and were dividing, in their imagination, the spoils. Buonaparte, without concealing from his officers the imminent danger to which they were exposed from the bravery and numbers of the enemy, coolly pointed out to each what he judged to be the least hazardous mode of extricating themselves from their perilous position.

The Austrians, after a general discharge, rushed on to scale the entrenchments at Rivoli, of which they were three times in possession, and were successively repulsed. A small battery of four field pieces had been brought, in the mean time, to cannonade the right wing of the Austrians, through which Buonaparte, it seems, had meditated his escape; but which projected flight he now hoped to turn into a victory. Two brigades, in three columns, under the generals Brune and Monnier, were ordered to attack this wing, and dislodge it from the commanding position which it kept on the heights. This desperate service the soldiers effected, advancing, at first, in regular order, singing one of their war-hymns; but they no sooner approached within gun-shot of the enemy, than they rushed on them with desperation. The Austrians, overwhelmed and confounded by the violence of the assailants, fled,
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panic-struck, towards the lake of Guarda, and, meeting with a straggling party of light-infantry, who were trying to join the surrounded French army, and whom they supposed to be a more considerable body, laid down their arms, to the number of 3000 men.

The French army was now disengaged; but night put an end to any further conflict. Buonaparte, who had received information that a very violent cannonade had taken place on the Lower Adige, and hearing nothing from general Augereau, who commanded in that quarter, concluded that the communication between the right of the main army, and the centre at Verona, was cut off. Having left orders with general Joubert in what manner he should attack the Austrians on the following day, he directed the march of part of the troops, which he judged could be spared, towards Verona and Castelnovo.

During this dreadful and bloody contest on the Upper Adige, a column of ten thousand men, under general Provera, had forced their passage across this river (13th of January) at Angiara, under the protection of a formidable train of artillery, and had compelled general Guieux, who guarded the passage, to retire to Ronco. General Augereau had united all his forces, to fall on this column, between Angiari and Roverquiera; but, as the grand object of Provera was to throw succours into Mantua, his passage was so rapid, that the rear only of his column was exposed to the attack. The result of this combat was two thousand prisoners, and a few cannon; but the remainder of the column pushed forward, with little further opposition, and summoned general Mi-

ollis, who commanded the post of St. George, in the vicinity of Mantua, to surrender.

According to the orders of Buonaparte, on leaving Rivoli, general Joubert made an attack the following day (January 15) on the centre and left of the division which remained under Alvinzi, in the posts they had occupied the preceding day. The action began two hours before day-break. The centre division of the French attacked the centre of the Austrians, at the post of St. Martin, which had already been disputed with so much warmth the day before, and from which they were now dislodged; but their left wing, which had kept possession of St. Marco, and of the heights rising from the Adige, repulsed the French at every attack, and held, with great firmness, the commanding position which they had taken. In the mean while, general Joubert, who doubted, early in the day, of the success of this enterprise, had dispatched a column to turn this wing of the Austrians by Corona. The Austrian general, apprised of his movements, sent another column to prevent this operation; but the French had first reached their destination, and accomplished the intention of the expedition. The Austrians, seeing this manœuvre, fell into disorder, and were on the point of retreating, when they were surrounded. Six thousand men laid down their arms, and the rest of the division fled towards the Tyrol. General Provera, in the mean while, having penetrated to the suburbs of Mantua, finding his attack on the fort of St. George without effect, and hearing no news from general Alvinzi, who was to have formed his junction with him at this point, had now no alternative but that of joining

ing his forces to those of general Wurmsfer, in a Sally which the latter might make from the citadel, or of laying down his arms.

This attack was made (Jan. 16) before day-break, on the lines of the blockade, by the post of St. Anthony, with the whole force of the garrison, and with great impetuosity: the object of which was, the possession of the post of the Favorita, which would have opened the way for a junction with Provera; but Buonaparte, who foresaw this movement, had rendered it useless, by reinforcing the garrison with 1500 men. General Wurmsfer, failing in this attempt, gained possession of the post of St. Anthony; but the French, who had been driven from thence, having been so reinforced, the garrison could make no further progress. In the mean while, Buonaparte had dispatched a division, under general Victor, to turn the Austrian column, in which it succeeded, after a warm contest. The general who commanded at the post of St. George's made a sortie at the same moment; and Provera, part of whose infantry and cavalry had already laid down their arms, who had hitherto conducted himself with distinguished military address and bravery, and whose division had seconded with no less courage the efforts of their general, finding himself completely hemmed in, was obliged to surrender himself, with his troops, prisoners of war.

This high-spirited army was composed chiefly of those volunteers of Vienna, already mentioned, on whose courage the greatest expectations had been founded. The relief of Mantua had kindled the chivalrous feelings of the crusade in these young men, and had led them, from the luxury and inde-

lence of a capital, to brave the dangers of the field, and the sword of an experienced enemy. The empress had consecrated this ardour, by working, with her own hands, the colours which were to lead them to victory. This Imperial present, although it did not prove a palladium to its possessors, was not destined to grace the triumph of the conquerors. The gallant standard-bearer, rather than suffer it to be taken, tore it with his own hands, and committed the fragments to the flames, when he found the surrender of the army who fought under its auspices was become inevitable.

The event of this well-contested battle, which lasted four days, in a space of sixty miles, was a decisive victory gained over the Austrians, by the destruction of this fifth army of the emperor, during the Italian war. The fruits of this victory were 23,000 prisoners, among whom were three generals, fourteen colonels, twenty pair of colours, and sixty pieces of cannon: The killed and wounded on both sides were very numerous, and probably equal. General Wurmsfer remained shut up in Mantua, the garrison of which was left to experience all the horrors of famine, since the convoy which attended the march of Provera had also fallen into the hands of the French.

While the armies of France were thus victorious, the interior, as usual, continued to be harassed by contending parties. The directory, at the close of the year, had made known, by a message to the councils, the pressing distresses of the country, and painted the state of misery to which every class employed in its service was reduced; the despair of the creditors of

of the state, and the frightful ravages made in the hospitals and charitable asylums, from the want of medicines, and also by famine, and the diseases that accumulated in its train. The directory pointed out the remedy for these disorders in about ninety millions of livres, which remained of national domains that were ordered to be sold by a decree made in the month of March preceding, and which, being hitherto unappropriated, they imagined might be forced from the council by the energy of their representations. This melancholy statement was not altogether unfounded, but the colouring, it is said, was highly overcharged. The legislature, who held the public purse, were not ignorant how unwisely, and unworthily, in most cases, the funds had been administered which had hitherto been granted. The *compte rendu* of the administration had been the subject of severe animadversion; and it was found to be so far the inverse of the observation of our poet, that "the trappings of the republic might have set up a decent monarchy."

The ascendancy which France had gained over the rest of Europe must certainly be attributed rather to the force of her arms than the wisdom of her councils: yet the great flexibility with which the government of the day could turn the finances of the country to the purposes of their own administration, when the wealth of the state, to use the words of M. Calonne, was found in the shops of their printers, had greatly facilitated the establishment of its power. In revolutionary government, when every thing was forced to bend to the cry of the safety of the state, the legislature, who had confided the lives

and fortunes of the people of France to the faction who seized on the reins of government during the time of Robespierre, were not too scrupulous in demanding an account of the expenditure of the public money; so, during the laxity of the government that succeeded, the constant depreciation of the paper was such, that any specific grant would not only have been fallacious, but would have betrayed at once the ruin into which the finances were hastening, and given a sort of legal sanction to their immediate decay. During these years of paper-currency and revolutionary government, no taxes had been demanded from the people; and therefore, as the fortune of the state lay in property in which they were not directly concerned, little notice was taken whether the public funds were honestly or corruptly administered; but, when the constitution of 1795 took place of the revolutionary system, and paper-money, in all its varying forms of assignats, rescriptions, bons, and mandats, was no longer the currency of the state, the people, who had returned to the ancient habitude of gold and silver, affixed other ideas to the value of money than it appeared to the legislature were formed by the executive government.

The apprehensions of the councils, of the near dissolution of the state, were not in union with those of the directory: it was not an unpleasing spectacle also to the majority of its members, to find those, whose power they had feared, as much as they had despised their means of acquiring and confirming it, bounded, at length, in their operations, and recurring to the people for aid.

Had this jealousy been wisely tem-

tempered, great advantages would have resulted to both powers of the state; and the expenditure of what should have been granted liberally would have been in future more carefully administered: but the mixture of little passions prevented this accommodation, and the directory continued to charge the councils with impeding the operations of government by an ill-timed parsimony, which the councils retorted, by justly remarking on the profusion and rapacity of the administration.

Notwithstanding these altercations, which discovered themselves less in the councils than without the walls, where the disquisitions were carried on more freely, a sense of common interest and danger engaged both parties to coalesce in preserving the machine of government. Already two jacobin confederacies, in the last year, which threatened to overwhelm the state, and bury, in one common ruin, both directory and councils, had been averted, and the authors of them consigned to punishment: the beginning of the present was marked by a conspiracy of another nature, known under the name of the royalist plot.

The conspiracies of the jacobins were of all plots the least likely to succeed. The sentiment of horror, which the jacobins had inspired, was so widely and minutely disseminated, that, had they succeeded, their attempts would have been crowned with only momentary success. Whatever general vigour revolutionary government might, at certain periods, have communicated to the country, every individual had to lament partial evil in the loss of kindred or friends; and the feeling of vengeance was smothered, rather than subdued, from

a regard to public order. But a royalist plot wore no such terrific aspect; various classes of the Parisians were prepared to hail its auspices; and numbers, whose love of liberty had not withstood the shock of revolutionary tyranny, beheld the discovery of this conspiracy with unconcern.

It was in the favourable reception with which these conspirators were regarded by one party, and the unconcern with which their machinations were treated by others, rather than in any effective force they could have raised against the actual government, that the possibility of any danger existed.

The directory, it is said, had long known, that commissaries from Louis XVIII. resided in Paris. These agents held a continued and active correspondence, throughout the whole republic, with the numerous partisans of the old regimen, with whom they concerted plans, and combined operations, for the destruction of the new system, and the re-establishment of the ancient despotism. The address with which these regal commissaries concealed their operations, prevented, for a long time, the government from discovering their persons. Various insulated proofs were laid before the directory, both from the departments and in Paris; but the clue, which guided them to the inferior agents, always broke in their hands before it reached the chiefs.

It was not, however, possible, that this mystery could long continue unravelled; for the obscure and partial means, of which they made use, such as secret engagements and enlistments, could never serve any effective purposes towards the success of the cause for which these commissaries were deputed. The conjecture was not ill-founded:

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the seeming laxity of pursuit in the government encouraged these agents to push on their operations with more boldness; and having, they imagined, ripened their plan for execution, they addressed themselves to Malo, who commanded a regiment of dragoons quartered in Paris, and who had distinguished himself at the time when the jacobins made their attack on the camp of Grenelle; and also to general Ramel, who commanded the guard of the two councils. The propositions made by these commissaries, at different interviews, were communicated regularly to the directory by these officers. The project was, to place Louis on the throne; and, in order to put it into execution, it was necessary to be assured of the military in Paris; to which end an immediate advance of pay was proposed, and accepted by the officers who commanded them; and who had eventually inspired such confidence, that the commissaries laid before them, it is asserted, the full powers for negotiation, with which they were entrusted, and also a long plan of their projected operations.

The plan appeared, in several instances, to have been a literal copy of the jacobin plot formed in the beginning of the last year, under the direction of Babeuf; such as seizing on the barriers of the city, the invalids, the military school, the magazines, the telegraph, the Thuilleries, the Luxembourg, and the minister's hotels; securing the course of the river above and below Paris; taking possession of the powder-mills around the city; intercepting the bridges; and establishing batteries on Mount-martre to command the town. The court, or residence of the king's representative, was to be established at the temple. The

plan of Babeuf was a general extermination of the members of government, with very few exceptions. The royalist commissaries proposed the proscription of the directory, in case only that they did not avail themselves of the amnesty that should be offered them; the members of the two councils were only to be confined in their respective houses; the municipalities and the chiefs of the jacobin party to be secured; the old government of Paris, by prévôts, to be re-established; the jacobin journals to be burnt (by which name were distinguished the *Sentinelles*, the *Redacteur*), and the authors arrested; all were to be set at liberty who were imprisoned, except for crimes; an amnesty to be proclaimed in the king's name; peace to be announced as near at hand; the judges to continue their functions; a proclamation to be made to the armies; a guard placed over the foreign ambassadors till the return of the couriers, which should be dispatched to their respective courts; the conductors to be ordered to continue their supplies; the freets to be filled with patrols, furnished with hand-grenades, as the best instruments for dispersing mobs; proclamations to be sent into the provinces; various persons, such as Vauvillers, Simeon, de Fleurien, Barbi-Marbois, and Tallien, to be named to offices; others to continue in place, such as Benezech and Cochon; and du Bar to be charged with the general military superintendence of Paris.

The commissaries were arrested at the military school at the issue of a conference with Malo, who had stationed guards for that purpose. Their plans and papers were likewise seized, and themselves sent prisoners to the temple. The immediate

mediate agents were Duverne de Presles, an officer in the old service, but who now assumed the name of Dunan, a grocer, and the abbé Brothier; these men were furnished with special powers, and had chosen Lavilleurnoy and Poly as assistants. Many persons, who were mentioned in their papers, were also arrested.

What is most singular in this conspiracy, was the inadequacy of the means to the end. It was scarcely possible to suppose at first view that any one would have hazarded such an enterprise without greater probability of success; nevertheless, from the open declarations which these persons made in their examination, of their being the agents of Lewis the XVIII., and that their design was to subvert the government, or take advantage in favour of royalty of any commotion that should take place, no doubt was entertained of their intentions. It appears from their confidential communications with Malo, previous to their arrest, that they had in pay a number of the officers who had been dismissed the service, and deserters from the armies; that they had also placed confidence in that class of jacobins who went by the name of exclusive patriots, and that they fixed their greatest hopes on the divisions in the councils. These were, however, very disproportionate means, since the persons whom they named to distinguished places under their new government, such as Simeon, Cochon, Tallien, and others, heard first of such nomination when the papers were read at the councils, and very easily excused themselves from any knowledge of the honours which had been reserved for them, and which, it appears, they were only to wear till the establishment of the new go-

vernment, when they, also, were to be set aside, and sacrificed for their republican crimes.

The principal agents in this conspiracy, and those to whom it appeared, by the papers in their possession, that subordinate parts had been allotted, were sent by an *arrêté* of the directory, before a military commission. Repeated and numerous reclamations were made by the counsel, and friends of the prisoners, against this proceeding, which they declared to be an act of tyranny, incompatible not only with the principles of a free constitution, but in *direct opposition to the laws*. The minister of justice defended the decree of the directory by citing a law, which maintained the competency of a military tribunal to judge those who had been guilty of the crime of *embauchage*, or enlisting foldiers for the enemy, which he said was certainly part of the crime of the prisoners and their agents. The counsel for the prisoners appealed to the *tribunal de cassation*, or tribunal of reversion, who ordered all the papers relative to this affair to be laid before them, which order the directory opposed, by decreeing that this tribunal was incompetent to judge of the affair. The appeal to the legislative body, to whom petitions were addressed by the prisoners' counsel, for their interposition between the tribunal and the directory, was rejected, and the prisoners were left to the decision of the court-martial, to which they had been sent by the executive power.

After a very long trial, the court (8th April) unanimously declared Dunan (or Duverne de Presles), Brothier, Devilleurnoy, and Poly, guilty of the crime of enlisting men for the enemy, and, consequently, liable to the sentence of death; but

in consideration of the extenuating circumstances which attended their crime, the court, affected by the frankness with which they had made their several confessions, by virtue of a law which permitted court-martials to commute punishments, condemned Duverne de Presses and Brothier to ten years imprisonment; Poly and Lavilleurnoy, their accomplices, the first to five, the last to one year; and acquitted all the rest. This unexpected exercise of lenity excited considerable surprise among all parties. The royalists, who had joined themselves with the extreme observers of the constitution to exclaim against the tyranny of withdrawing persons accused from their legal judges, and subjecting them to the decision of a court-martial supposed to be necessarily under the influence of government, drew favourable omens from this sentence of impunity to the speedy establishment of their system; while those who saw in the subversion of liberty a crime which no punishment could expiate, murmured at the court-martial for having betrayed its trust. The different parties soon found new subject of speculation, since the same day on which the court-martial pronounced sentence, an *arrêté* was made by the directory, ordering that the prisoners should be again indicted before the common tribunals, on the ground that the court-martial not having been able to take cognisance of any other crime than that of enlisting soldiers for the enemy; and the prisoners having been notoriously guilty of conspiracy in other ways against the republic, they should undergo that examination for these facts before the civil tribunals, to which the other was not competent. If the public indignation had been excited

when first these prisoners (contrary, as it was rightly asserted, to the constitution) were sent before a court-martial, the conduct of the directory in pursuing to death those whose lives the severest of all tribunals had spared, was regarded as an act of consummate tyranny, and a violation of every principle of law and justice. The directory, however, it afterwards appeared, had no such intentions. On the contrary (if the plot itself was not wholly a fiction), they determined, at least, to turn it to the disadvantage of their adversaries in the councils.

"It was evident," say the advocates for the directory, "that these men would not have so inconsiderately risked their lives, if they had not been influenced by some greater assurance of success than what appeared from the first examinations; it was clear that something yet remained undiscovered; that the foundation, on which for fifteen months past they had built their hopes, was more solid than the capricious anger of jacobins, the precarious attachment of dismissed officers, and deserters, or the inefficacious, and scattered support of the provincial royalists. It was of less importance that these men should undergo the punishment allotted for their treason, than that the means by which they hoped to effect a counter-revolution should be discovered. Their lives were forfeited beyond the possibility of pardon, except they would redeem them by the ingenueness and freedom of their confessions. It appears that all of them had not the courage, or constancy of martyrs; for the chief of the conspiracy saved his own life, and consequently those of his associates, by the confession which

which is consigned in the secret registers of the directory."

By this confession (if any credit is to be given to it), it was in the legislative body that these royal commissaries boasted of having found the greatest facility for their operations. "In the month of June, last year," says Duverne des Presses, "propositions were made to us in the name of a party which stated itself to be very powerful; and which propositions we transmitted to the king. This party offered to serve us, on condition that there should be no other change in the present constitution than the concentration of the executive power in the royal person. The king accepted the service, but deliberated with respect to the conditions. He requested that some authorized agent should be sent to him: this request he has constantly repeated; but the party, being much more weak than it declared itself at first to be, relaxed in its pretensions, without entirely giving them up. On our side, hoping to restore the throne by the means of the two councils, we thought it right to leave them at liberty to make their conditions with the king; and therefore did not insist on their sending an agent. About two months since, some one was sent, who, I believe, carried a list to the king of the members who were for monarchy, to the number of one hundred and eighty-four. I am not certain as to the fact. The evening before our arrest, or the preceding evening, a person came to propose giving the king a list of sixty other members."

In this confession, it was further declared, that they had been in a certain degree successful in bringing over part of the soldiery employed in the several military ser-

vices at Paris; that they had many of their agents in various offices; and that the greater number of the municipal authorities of Paris were on their side. That the writers of the newspapers were in their pay; that they judged of the success of the royalist papers from the information which they themselves procured from corrupted agents of the police; and that with the money which they should have received, in addition to the sums they had already procured, they should have given a great latitude to their measures. It was admitted by this confession, that they were themselves unacquainted with the members in the legislative body who composed their party; of whom only two, Lemerer and Merfan were the visible agents; but they reckoned the greater part of the members of the club at Clichy to be their firm adherents.

It appears, it is further said, that Louis himself alluded to a communication similar to this confession, in a letter dated Blankenbourg, 24th of November, 1796, wherein he observes, that he learnt, with great satisfaction, the progress which his agents at Paris had made in rallying to his standard the two councils and the existing administrations. In the letter, he pointed out the means of increasing the influence of this party, so favourable to his interests, which were to remove the regicides from their places, to secure the returns at the new elections, and bring over the party in the council, called the *Ventre*, or independent members who vote according to their views of the question before them. Louis refers them for additional instruction to the duke of Harcourt in London; and prays them to give him some further in-

formation of their connexions with one of the two armies; and the association (by which was understood the club of Clichy) pressing also the sending the deputy who was to represent the royalist party in the two councils near his person.

By this confession, made on the 1st of March, it appears that Duverne des Presles saved his own life and that of his confederates. From the circumstances under which it was made great doubts must be entertained of its truth. Supposing it genuine, still, so far as the facts stated in it remain uncorroborated by other testimony, it is but the evidence of an individual, deeply interested to make or feign discoveries which he knew would be grateful to those who held his life in their hands. It must be remembered that the names only of two members of the council are mentioned; that the letter of Louis is no further evidence of the truth of this confession, than that such communication had been made by his agents, which, though given in a season of calmness and reflection, might have been an exaggerated boast of their own services, and the power of their party, which, in cases where no accurate examination can take place, there is often great temptation to make. Considerable doubts have arisen with respect to the real character of these agents, who (although they were in possession of numerous brevets, and commissions signed by Louis XVIII., and also letters bearing his signature), were, it is asserted, neither known nor employed by him. It is indeed said by the royalist party, who, at best, must have regarded Duverne des Presles as a traitor to the cause, that the brevets employed by these conspirators were found in the

house of Charette after his execution, and fell into their hands; and that the assumption of the name of the king's agents was only an imposition which they hoped success would justify. As the premature publication of this declaration would have been, in the opinion of the directory, hostile to their interests, and as no plausible reason could be given for a pardon, it was decided that the trial before the military commission should take place, the event of which was predetermined; so that this celebrated cause, which had provoked so much discussion, awakened so much indignation, which had been intercepted in its progress by the interposition of other courts, carried before the legislature, and afterwards debated, for so long a time, with all the eloquence of the most celebrated counsel of Paris, was probably little more than a farce, which state policy caused to be acted, in order to conceal and accomplish in due time its real designs. The directory acted no less politically, after guiding the machinery of this comedy to its *dénouement* before the court-martial, in ordering the conspirators to be carried before another tribunal. This was a compliment paid to those who, not being in the secret, were justly dissatisfied with the judgment of the court-martial, and also the display of a severity necessary to restrain other conspirators who would have been tempted, in hopes of similar lenity, to have undertaken a similar enterprise. The re-commitment of the prisoners, or rather their continuance under the sentence of the court-martial, was all the inconvenience the directory intended they should experience.

After

After the defeat of the Austrians before Mantua and Rivoli, the French army pursued the fugitives. General Augereau, who had commanded the right wing of the line at the last attack, directed his course through Padua, across the Brenta, and marched unopposed till he came to Citadella, from whence he forced, after some smart skirmishes, the Austrians to retire, and continued his route to Treviso.

The centre, under general Massena, passed on from Vicenza to Bassano, which the Austrians evacuated at his approach, and retreated to Carpenedolo, where a serious engagement took place, in which the French were again victorious, and took nine hundred prisoners; the remainder fled to Feltré; and, on the approach of the French, retreated across the Prado. General Joubert, who commanded the left of the French line, continued to pursue the division of Austrians whom he had defeated under Alvinzi; and overtaking them at Avio, carried their entrenchments, and took also 400 prisoners. The Austrians retreated to Mori and Torbole, being defended on their right by the lake of Guarda, and on their left by the Adige; but a detachment of the French having embarked lower down the lake, and landed at Torbole, and another having taken a circuitous and difficult route amidst the mountains, in order to take the Austrians on each flank, a body of 450 men, with their officers, were compelled to lay down their arms. This division of the French army continued their march through Roveredo towards Trent, of which they took possession, finding in the hospitals two thousand sick, which the Austrians, in re-

treating, recommended to their care.

The garrison of Mantua, having lost every hope of succour, was compelled at last to surrender (Feb. 1.). This almost impregnable fortress, before which five Austrian armies, in attempting its relief, had been defeated and dispersed, and upon which the force of the armies of France had made but a feeble impression, was subdued at length by the enemy within the walls, disease and famine. The French troops took possession of the citadel the following day. By the capitulation, the garrison were made prisoners of war; except general Wurmser, and his suite, 200 cavalry, 500 men of the general's choice, his staff, and whomsoever he should choose to comprise in that number. This unusual grant is said to have been an act of honour in the one party, and of humanity in the other; the 500 who were to pass unexamined being emigrants, and by the laws of war, when taken, to be punished with death. The rest of the capitulation was made in the same liberal spirit, and every alleviation was offered by Buonaparte to soften the misfortunes of his respectable guest, to whom, as the French general observed in his official communication, fortune had been in this campaign singularly cruel; but who, from his courage and constancy, which history would not fail to notice, merited a better fate.

The reduction of Mantua left the divisions, by which it was besieged, at liberty for the expedition which had for a long time amused the imaginations of the French, the erecting the national flag on the capital of Rome. The hostile preparations of the papal see against

the French had long been known, notwithstanding the armistice which had been concluded. The conditions of that armistice had not been fulfilled on the side of his holiness, in expectation that the successive armies of Austrians, which had marched against the French, could not have failed to have delivered both him and Italy. An intercepted letter written by cardinal Busca, the pope's minister, to count Albani, the ambassador at Vienna, threw further light on his holiness's intentions. By this letter, dated Rome, 7th January, it appeared that both the emperor and empress had promised the papal ambassador assistance; that M. Thugut, the Imperial minister, no longer able to hang back, had changed his opinion (probably of the inefficiency of such an ally), and had sent general Colli to command the papal forces, on whose aid he relied. The cardinal informed the count, that, in consideration of this alliance he should continue to temporise with the French with respect to the conditions of peace which they had made, and of their desire and sincerity to obtain peace he was fully convinced; but although every engine had been put in motion to force him to conclude, he was resolved to hold out, since he had opened a negotiation with Vienna.

The evidences which the cardinal furnished of the pacific intentions of the French were contained in the extract of a letter from the nuncio at the court of Florence to himself. The nuncio informs him, that, in the various conferences which he had with count Manfredino, this minister assured him that Buonaparte, far from co-operating in the destruction of the papal see, was so desirous of preserving

it, that he allowed that some of the articles proposed by the French commission, those for instance respecting religion, were inadmissible on the part of his holiness; and he was not even averse to leave the question relative to the invaded legations to be decided at the general peace; and that Buonaparte had expressed himself desirous of making peace with Rome on the conditions expressed in the armistice, and would even make them more favourable to the holy see. The answer of the cardinal to the nuncio, contained in the intercepted packet, breathed nothing but war and defiance. The conditions even of the armistice would have purchased, in his opinion, a peace too dear; but if Buonaparte would first modify those conditions, and agree expressly to restore Bologna and Ferrara, his holiness might then have some reason to believe a treaty of peace possible; but that at present there was nothing that led him to flatter himself that peace was so near a conclusion.

The peace was, however, nearer than either the pope or the cardinal had flattered themselves. They had been deceived in all their calculations. The march of Alvinzi's army, to which they probably added that of their own, had raised fallacious hopes, and inspired a momentary courage, built on the projected alliance of the holy see with the emperor, and the expected victories of the Imperial arm. Buonaparte, before entering the papal territory, published a manifesto (1st February), declaring that the pope had formally refused the execution of the eighth and ninth articles of the armistice, had by his briefs incited the people to a crusade, and had marched his troops within ten miles of Bologna; that

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he had begun hostile negotiations with the court of Vienna; had confided the command of his troops to Austrian officers sent from the court of Vienna; and had refused to listen to the overtures of peace made by the minister of the French republic; that the treaty of armistice had been violated by the court of Rome; in consequence of which, he declared that the armistice concluded the 20th of June, between the court of Rome and the French republic, was broken.

This manifesto was accompanied by a proclamation, stating, "that as the French army was about to enter on the territories of the pope, they would be faithful to the maxims which they always professed, and would protect both religion and its adherents; that the French soldier, carrying his bayonet in one hand, would offer peace, protection, and safety with the other; warning those whose perfidious or hypocritical sentiments should lead them to acts of hostility, that they had to brave the vengeance of an army which in six months had made 100,000 prisoners of the emperor's best troops, taken 400 pieces of cannon, 110 stand of colours, and destroyed five armies."

The proclamation stated in three articles, "that every town or village, which, at the approach of the French army, should ring the alarm-bell, should be burnt, and the magistrates shot; that the commune, in which a Frenchman should be assassinated, should be declared in a state of hostility, and should pay an extraordinary contribution; and that ecclesiastics of every description, who should conduct themselves according to the principles of the gospel, should be protected and preserved in their functions,

but that those who first transgressed them should be punished in a military manner, and more severely than other citizens."

Even supposing that the perfidy of the papal court had justified Buonaparte's manifesto, and the march of his troops into the pope's territories, it will naturally excite surprise, that a general who had always professed liberal sentiments should have issued a proclamation which breathed nearly the same spirit that Europe had beheld with so much indignation in the celebrated manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, on his entrance, in 1792, into Champagne. If any duty be imposed on the citizens of a country, it is that of its defence against invaders; the burning of the towns of those who resist, and putting its magistrates to death, may be found in the military code of Gengis-Khan, but ought to have no place in that of any civilised conqueror; nor does it appear, that Buonaparte's victories had qualified him to enter the field of polemical disputation, or erect himself into an infallible teacher of the principles of the gospel.

The army of the pope had strongly entrenched itself on the river Senio, the banks of which were lined with cannon. The Lombard legion, in close columns, carried the entrenchments, and took the cannon with their bayonets. The French made 1000 prisoners, after killing about 500 men, and continued their march through Imola, towards Faenza. The gates of this city were shut against them, the alarm-bell was rung, and the populace prepared to make resistance. A few shot broke down the gates, and the French entered sword in hand. As the town was taken by assault, the laws of war allowed indiscriminate

nate pillage; but Buonaparte contented himself with deputing fifty officers, whom he had just made prisoners, to inform them what might justly have been the consequences of their folly; and having himself assembled all the monks and priests, he endeavoured to impress on their minds what he styles "the principles of the gospel." He sent as heralds to Ravenna, the general of the religious order of the Camaldules in order to instruct the inhabitants how to avoid the dangers to which their present state of blindness and ignorance might subject them; and for the same purpose he sent to Cazenna, the birth-place of the pope, Dom Ignatio, prior of the order of the Benedictines. In a few days the Romagna, the duchy of Urbino, and the province of Ancona, submitted without further resistance. In Ancona, the French made 1,200 prisoners, and took possession of a considerable quantity of very fine arms, which had just been sent to the pope from the emperor, together with an immense number of cannon. From Ancona, a division of the French troops proceeded to Loretto, from whence count Colli withdrew the papal army on their approach, carrying with him the greater part of the treasure of the sacred house, but leaving the inhabitant at the disposal of the French. The army journeyed on without paying any other attention to the virgin than taking possession of the remainder of the treasure which the papal general had left behind. Unlike the conquerors of antiquity, who fancied they had enchained victory when the objects of the adoration of their enemies fell into their hands, the French general left this new ally, the miraculous image, to the frigid and profane examina-

tion of the commissaries of government, who had been sent to make collections of what was most rare and curious in Italy. In violation of the principles of toleration, on which they professed to act, this object of religious worship, our lady of Loretto, was put into a case with the relics of her original wardrobe and kitchen furniture, stated by the commissaries to consist of rags of black woollen cloth, and earthenware spoons, and sent as trophies to the directory; but the miraculous house, which had been transported from Palestine to Loretto by angels, was shut up till further orders, with the prohibition of working any more miracles.

The army had proceeded through Macerata to Tolentino, within a few hours' march of Rome, and were on the point of being joined by the divisions which were marching by Sienna and Cortona, when his holiness, finding himself at the mercy of an enemy, against whom no further resistance could be made, dispatched a messenger to Buonaparte's headquarters with offers of peace.

A letter, dated Rome, 12th of February, 1797, and written by the pope, was addressed to Buonaparte, and conceived in the following terms:

"Dear son, health, and apostolical benediction,

"Desirous of terminating in an amicable manner our actual differences with the French republic, by the withdrawing the troops which you command, we send and depute towards you, as our plenipotentiaries, two ecclesiastics, the cardinal Mattei, who is perfectly known to you, and his lordship of Caleppi, together with two seculars, the duke don Lewis Braschi, our nephew, and the marquiss Camilli Massini, who

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“ are clothed with our full powers to
 “ concert with you, to promise and
 “ subscribe such conditions as we
 “ hope shall be just and reasonable;
 “ obliging ourselves, on our faith
 “ and word, to approve and ratify
 “ them in special form, in order
 “ that they may at all times be
 “ valid and inviolable : secure in
 “ the sentiments of good will,
 “ which you have manifested to-
 “ wards us, we have abstained from
 “ all removal from Rome, by
 “ which you will be persuaded of
 “ our great confidence in you.
 “ We conclude with assuring you
 “ of our highest esteem, and in
 “ giving you our paternal aposto-
 “ lic benediction. Given at St.
 “ Peter’s of Rome, the 22d year of
 “ our pontificate.

“ (Signed) Pius, P. P. VI.”

The treaty of peace was signed (the 19th of February) by the commissaries of the pope and Buonaparte at Tolentino, and ratified a few days after by the pope and the sacred college. In this treaty the religious feelings of the holy father were treated with more respect than in the conditions of the armistice ; and Buonaparte very wisely exchanged the unnecessary humiliation of retracting opinions formerly emitted in bulls, and manifestoes, which were contained in those conditions, for more solid advantages. The treaty, after the usual preliminary of peace and good understanding between the contracting powers, enjoins the pope to recall every adhesion, consent or accession, whether public or private, given by him to the coalition, and to every other treaty of alliance, offensive or defensive, with any other power or state whatever. The pope obliges himself to furnish neither during the present, nor in any future war, to any of the powers armed against

France, assistance in troops, vessels, arms, provisions, or money, under any pretext, or by any denomination whatever. In five days after the conclusion of the treaty, he engaged to put his army on the same footing as before the conclusion of the armistice; and to suffer no ships of war, or privateers, belonging to the enemy during the present war, to enter his roads or ports. The pope formally renounced all right and title to the towns and territory of Avignon, and the county Venaissin, situated in France ; and also, every right and title to the territories known under the name of the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna, to the French republic ; binding himself not to bestow the title of seignories annexed to the territory thus ceded. The French republic were to enjoy all the immunities and privileges which the nation possessed at Rome previous to the war ; the French post to be re-established at Rome ; the administration of the French academy of arts to be continued as heretofore ; and, till a treaty of commerce was made, the republic to be placed on equal terms with the most favoured nations.

The arrears of the sum demanded at the armistice to the amount of 15,000,000 of livres was consented to be paid, to which were added 800 horses equipped for cavalry, and as many horses, oxen, and buffaloes for draft. As a condition of peace the pope bound himself to pay in addition 15,000,000 of livres, within two months, all of which was to be paid by instalments ; the French army was engaged to recede from the different provinces in the pope’s territories, of which they had then possession, in proportion to the celerity of the payments. All the manuscripts, pictures,

pictures, statues, and other objects stipulated for at the armistice, were to be immediately delivered. His holiness likewise engaged to set at liberty all who were confined in Rome on account of their political opinions, and also to apologise at Paris, through his minister, for the murder of the French envoy Bassville, allowing the sum of 300,000 livres to his family. The pope lastly ceded to the French republic all the allodial lands belonging to the holy see, in the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna, particularly Mesola, and its dependencies; for all which concessions on the part of the court of Rome, the French republic made a formal cession to the pope of all its rights over the different religious foundations belonging to France in the cities of Rome and Loretto, and agreed to deliver up the town and citadel of Ancona at the continental peace.

In answer to the pope's letter, respecting peace, Buonaparte, on the signing the articles, addressed to his holiness the following note :

" Buonaparte, general in chief of the army of Italy to his holiness Pope Pius VI.

" Most holy father,

" I have to thank your holiness for the obliging things contained in the letter which you have taken the trouble to write to me.

" The peace between the French republic and your holiness has just been signed. I congratulate myself on having contributed to your private tranquillity.

" I pray your holiness to place no confidence in certain persons at Rome, either sold to courts hostile to France, or led astray by those pernicious passions which are always the forerunners of the ruin of states.

" All Europe is acquainted with the pacific inclinations, and the conciliating virtues of your holiness. The French republic will be, I hope, one of the true friends of Rome.

" I send my aide-de-camp, commander of a brigade, to express to your holiness the esteem and perfect veneration which I have for your person; and I pray you to be assured of the pleasure which I shall have, on all occasions, of testifying the marks of respect and veneration with which I have the honour to be your very obedient servant,

" BUONAPARTE."

Buonaparte, in his projected expedition to Rome, was compelled to pass near or over part of the territory of the republic of St. Marino, the least in Europe, and whose inhabitants scarcely exceeded the vanguard of his army. The ambassador who was sent by Buonaparte to ask leave of passage, in his address to the captain regents or magistrates, recited " a few examples of the prodigies which liberty had operated among the people of free states; and after complimenting the republic of St. Marino for the asylum given to freedom within its walls, when it was banished from every other part of Europe, entered into a short history of the events of the French revolution, and the success with which its efforts had been crowned. He then informed those magistrates, that the army of Italy, in pursuit of peace, was compelled to pass very near their state, and that he came in the name of the French republic, deputed by general Buonaparte, to assure the ancient republic of St. Marino of peace and inviolable friendship. He, moreover, observed, that as the political situation

situation of the states around them was likely to undergo certain changes, if any part of their frontiers was in a state of litigation, or if even they felt any inclination to round their own territory by taking a part of their neighbours, the French republic would seise, with pleasure, the occasion of showing the republic of St. Marino every proof of its sincere friendship."

The answer of the council of the republic to this address deserves to be cited as a model of that sound policy, to which, together with their insignificance, they have probably been hitherto indebted for their safety. "We place, citizen ambassador," say they, "in the number of the most glorious epochs that have distinguished the annals of our freedom, the day of your mission to our republic. Your republic not only conquers its enemies by the force of its arms, but tells its friends with astonishment at the generosity of its proceedings. Happy are we to be classed in the number of those models which have excited your noble emulation, and still more happy to be found worthy of your friendship, of which you have now given us so evident a proof. We cannot behold, without the most lively interest, the arms of the French republic, renewing in Italy the remembrance of the most brilliant eras of Greek and Roman history.

"The love of our liberty makes us feel the worth of the magnanimous exertions of a great people aspiring to recover their own: those exertions have surpassed all expectation. Your nation, single against the rest of Europe, has afforded the world an astonishing example of what that energy can achieve which is produced by the sentiment of liberty.

"Your army, marching in the steps of Hannibal, and surpassing by its deeds whatever is most wonderful in antiquity, led on by a hero who unites to every virtue the powers of the most distinguished genius, has cast a glance on a corner of the globe, where a remnant of the seas of ancient liberty fled for refuge, and where is found rather the plainness of Spartan manners than the elegance of Athens.

"You know, citizen ambassador, that the simplicity of our customs, the deep sentiment we cherish of liberty, are the only inheritance which has been transmitted to us by our fathers: this we have been able to preserve untouched amidst the political convulsions occasioned by a revolution of many ages, and which neither ambition nor hatred have been able to destroy.

"Return then to the hero who has sent you; carry back to him the free homage, not only of that admiration which we share with the whole world, but also of our gratitude; tell him that the republic of St. Marino, satisfied with its mediocrity, fears to accept his generous offer of enlarging its territory, which might possibly in the end prove injurious to its liberty; but tell him at the same time, that we shall feel that we owe every thing to the generosity of the French republic, and to that of its invincible general, if we obtain the means of uniting by firmer bonds our commercial relations, and of concluding a treaty which may secure our political existence.

"To these points are all our views bounded; and we request you to be our mediator with the chief of the army of Italy. With respect to yourself, illustrious ambassador, we feel ourselves happy to have amongst us a person who unites to the

the virtues of a citizen the talents of literature. The object of your mission, the manner in which you have fulfilled it, and the name of him who has sent you, will be an everlasting monument of the magnanimity of the conquerors of Italy, and will for ever keep alive the

sentiments of gratitude with which our hearts are at present affected. Saint Marino, the 12th February, 1797.

(Signed)

The Deputies of the Republic of St. Marino."

CHAP. IX.

Political State of the Northern Powers with respect to France. Of Russia, Prussia. Of the neutral Powers in Italy, Naples, Tuscany, Genoa, Venice. The Inefficacy of the Allies of the French Republic. Of Spain. Of Holland. Domestic Troubles. Refractory Clergy. Dissatisfied Magistracy. Severity of the Laws, and the Cause of their Inexecution. Amendments proposed by the Directory. Supineness of the Legislature. Hostile Spirit of the Journalists to the Republic. New Laws to punish Libels. Their Inefficacy. New Election of Part of the Legislative Body. Proclamation of the Directory. Proposal by the Directory of an Oath of Fidelity to be taken by the Electors—rejected by the Councils. Anti-directorial Party in the Council strengthened by the Election of the new Third. Motion of Inquiry into the Conduct of the Directory respecting the Transport of the Galley-Slaves to the English Coast. Cause of this Expedition. Preparations by the Austrians and French for the Continuance of the War. Hopes of the Court of Vienna in the Exertions of Prince Charles. Positions of the two Armies. March of Prince Charles to the Piava. Advance of the French from the Brenta. Retreat of Prince Charles behind the strong Entrenchments of the Tagliamento. Difficulties of the Passage. Passage effected by the French. Defeat and Flight of the Army under Prince Charles. The whole of the Venetian Territory in Possession of the French. Attack and Defeat of the Austrians in the Tyrol under Laudohn by General Joubert. Retreat of Laudohn to Inspruck. Capture of the Austrian Artillery and Magazines, by Joubert, at Brixen. Attack and Defeat of the Centre of the Austrian Army by Massena, and their Retreat to the Mountains. Siege and Surrender of the Fortress of Gradisca. Possession of the Province of Gorizia by the French. Proclamation of Buonaparte. Retreat of Prince Charles to Clagenfurt. Defeat of the centre Army of the Austrians on the Snows of Tarvis by Massena. Defeat of the Austrians by Guieux, at Chinze. Capture of their Artillery, and Baggage by Massena. The Province of Carniola in Possession of the French. March of Joubert across the Tyrol an Alps. Junction of the Republican Armies at Clagenfurt. Further Retreat of Prince Charles. French in Possession of the Province of Carinthia, and of the whole of the Austrian Possessions to the Adriatic. Proclamation of Buonaparte to the Inhabitants of Carinthia. Letter of Buonaparte to Prince Charles, offering Terms of Peace. Prince Charles' Refusal. Alarm, Precautions, and warlike Preparations at Vienna. Propositions of Prince Charles—rejected. Advance of Buonaparte towards Vienna.

Vienna. Defeat of the Austrians, and further Retreat of Prince Charles across the Alb. Serious Propositions for an Armistice from the Court of Vienna. Accepted by Buonaparte. Conditions of the Armistice. Reflections on the relative Situation of the Austrian and French Armies.

WHILE France was thus humbling the courts of Vienna and Rome, she had little to fear from the enmity or jealousy of the other powers of Europe.

The king of Prussia was so far from being disposed to show any marks of benevolence to the emperor of Germany, that at the moment when the emperor of Russia was about to consult him on the interest of his ally, the king was employed in taking advantage of existing circumstances to unite to his former possessions several scattered towns in Germany that lay convenient to his dominions; having, among others, seized on Esslingen, on the same pretext as he had the preceding year taken possession of Nuremberg, or some other motives equally convenient and frivolous. The division, which had taken place in Germany, between the princes who had withdrawn themselves from the coalition, and placed themselves under the protection of the king of Prussia, and those who still remained faithful to their engagements, were circumstances highly favourable to the interests of France.

The neutral powers in Italy were more formidable from their intrigues than from their force. The success of the French arms, and the rapacity of their chiefs, had awakened their fears not only for their national independence from without, but for the security of their internal government, from the spirit of discontent that began to discover itself within. The continuance of the neutrality of Naples, which was obtained by the

fear of the French arms on the one side, and the menaces of Spain on the other, hung on the caprices of an effeminate and capricious court, which nothing but the romantic success of the French arms kept in awe. The duke of Tuscany, who had the wisdom to withdraw himself the first from the coalition, had too great an intercourse, from his position in Italy, with the French, to be suspected of any hostile intentions. The republic of Genoa was divided into two distinct classes of the governors and the governed, and almost on the eve of a revolution. The government of Venice, devoted (as the French asserted) entirely to the interests of the coalition, although neutral, had incurred the frequent reproaches of the French generals for its supposed partiality to the arms of the emperor. The king of Sardinia was too busily engaged in quelling the dangerous insurrections which had broken out at Turin, and which menaced both his person and government, to entertain any other sentiments, with respect to France, than those to which he was bound by his interest and his engagements. France drew little succour from her allies, Holland and Spain, whose alliance, offensive and defensive, with each other during the present war, which had been so much the subject of discussion the last year, was now on the point of being concluded. The former had lately augmented the English marine with several ships of the line, at the Cape of Good Hope, and the Spaniards had given up the invasion of Portugal, for which long boasted prepa-

preparations had been made. The fleets of those two powers were only passively serviceable to France, by keeping the English fleets unemployed in other enterprises, but that of blocking up their ports; and England reigned sole mistress of the seas; but from her own domestic situation was unable to effect any purpose that could at this time be eminently hostile to the French republic.

Such was the brilliant situation of France, at this epoch, with respect to the various powers of Europe; but its internal state did not present so favourable an aspect. The liberty which the French enjoyed under their new constitution, fondly cherished by its friends as the harbinger of prosperity and peace, had been turned by others into a spirit of licentiousness and inobservance of the laws, which threatened the dissolution of the state. The government was assailed on every side by reclamations from the departments against the troubles excited by the refractory priests, who, it was asserted, had either secreted themselves during the reign of terror, or who had returned into France from their sentence of banishment. The disorder which they had occasioned in the eastern departments of the republic was the subject of discussion in the legislature, who sent the papers containing the denunciations, for further examination, to the directory. The directory, who for more than twelve months past had made repeated representations to the legislature on this subject, by formal messages, as well as by indirect information, returned for answer, that not only were the departments on the Lower Rhine and the Moselle under the influence of the refractory clergy, but that they had

made as rapid a progress in every other department of the republic. They represented to the councils, that, grown bolder by impunity, they had excited the people in various places to pillage and murder; preventing every where the due execution of the laws, and spreading over many departments the hatred of the republican regimen, desolation, and death. This impunity, they observed, was owing to the extreme severity, and also the uncertainty of the laws against those who came under the denomination of refractory clergy. Although the laws were precise and formal, with respect to those who broke their ban, and returned from exile; yet the punishment of death to which they were liable, was, from its excessive rigour, the cause of their safety. The directory, who had seen the pernicious tendency, and frequently proposed the revision of those laws, now proposed to the legislature to repeal them altogether, and enact others, which, from being less severe, would be more effective. That law, which was considered by them as most likely to produce the effect intended, would have allowed these disturbers of the public peace a certain time to withdraw themselves from the republic; on the expiration of which, if found in the country, they should be banished to some one of the colonies belonging to France.

The refractory priests not only found refuge from punishment in the severity of the laws, which the constituted authorities of the districts to which they resorted, though attached from principle to the government, yet abhorrent of blood, neglected or refused to put into execution; but as most of these priests were effective instruments in the hands of those who wished

to subvert the republic, those members of the departmental and municipal administrations, who were not partial to that mode of government, or who were in the number of the disaffected, gave them positive protection and encouragement. Against defaulters of this description, such as constituted authorities, agents of the police, soldiers of the gendarmerie, justices of the peace, and all civil and military officers whatever, for this latitude of indulgence had pervaded all descriptions, the directory solicited the penalty of dismissal from their places, if, after the time limited, offenders were found within their jurisdiction; and that against those who harboured and concealed them greater penalties should be enacted.

Such was the representation of the directory; but whether the council doubted the truth of their report, or thought the mischief less alarming than it had been represented, no further notice was taken at that period of the message than hearing a report, and a project of a decree from the committee to which it was sent; which report, though it corresponded in a great measure with the views of the directory, was adjourned without further discussion.

The directory had another enemy, more formidable than the refractory clergy. This enemy was the tribe of journalists, whose newspapers were distributed throughout France with profusion. Some of these journalists, in order to elude the eye of the police, would take no subscription for Paris, where the name of their journals were unknown, and which were sent only to the departments; others, more bold, published openly their opinions, exciting the people to rebellion, and frequently to murder.

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Many of these journals were written with elegance, and those who reprobated them for their counter-revolutionary spirit were not displeased with their pleasantry and wit. Under the supposed protection of the constitution, these journalists feared no attack from the government, whose power reached no further than sending them before tribunals, where, true to the principles of the constitution, the juries acquitted alike the inviter to royalty, and the jacobinical instigator to crimes. The legislature, aware of the evil, were embarrassed how to find the remedy without violating the principle. The proposition made for the publication of an official journal, under the title of *The Tachygraphe*, which should report *verbatim* the debates of the councils, was rejected; but the legislature, after long discussion, agreed to a classification of offences both public and private; decreed the punishment of imprisonment more or less severe, in proportion to the offence; and enacted, that the tribunals of the correctional police should be competent to judge them. The remedy was too slight for the disease; the journals were rather emboldened than intimidated by these restraining laws, and the cause of jacobin sedition, and of royalist schemes, continued to be pleaded with as much energy and as publicly as ever.

The period was now approaching when the legislature and the directory were about to undergo the partial changes enjoined by the constitution. As the partisans of the different factions had looked forward to this epoch, with the hope that their respective opinions would have the ascendancy among the great mass of citizens composing the primary assemblies, no pains

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had been spared by these leaders to furnish them with previous instructions how to determine their choice. The directory made an address to those assemblies, both primary and electoral, on the occasion; the tendency of which was to state the nature and the importance of the duties they had to fulfil, on the faithful discharge of which depended the safety of the republic, and to put them on their guard against the intrigues and artifices of the different factions who were labouring to subvert it. This address was followed soon after by a message to the councils, in which the directory represented, that a great number of public functionaries had refused to take the civic oath, enjoined by the law of the nineteenth of Nivose, on pretence that they had already taken the accustomed oaths on their entering into office; that this refusal was an evidence of their being the partisans of one or other of the factions which were equally pernicious and formidable; that by the machinations of these parties, and by their undissembled declarations, the "republic was but a problem; and that the audacity of its enemies was such, that it might almost be permitted to doubt whether it had any real existence." The request made by the directory of converting the oath taken by the constituted authorities, of hatred to royalty and anarchy, into a law obligatory on the electors at the approaching nominations, was the subject of the most violent debates in the council. It was urged by the anti-directorial party, that the demand made by the message was unconstitutional, inasmuch, as no oath or obligation was imposed on the electors by the constitution; that the electors would have a right to refuse any oath; that the

directory had no other intention in proposing it than sowing divisions among the electoral bodies to influence the elections; and that this was a new instance of its tendency to the usurpation of the whole authority of the state. Although there was nothing in the message which could give a colour to these accusations, the council rejected the proposition, and converted the oath into a simple promise of fidelity and attachment, to be taken by the electors on their nomination.

The approaching day of the election of the new third was generally considered as an important crisis. Agreeably to the constitution, one-third of the members of the councils were to vacate their seats; which third consisted of those who had sat in the convention, and had been kept in their seats by the supplementary articles of the constitution, known by the names of the laws of the 5th and 13th of Fructidor. Hitherto the party of the conventionalists had predominated; but as another third, chosen by the people, was about to replace one of the remaining two-thirds of the convention, it was hoped, or feared, by the opposite parties in the republic, that changes of considerable importance would take place.

The opposition to the directory had been so marked in the preceding newly-elected third of the councils, that little doubt was left but the new election would produce such a reinforcement as should place the power entirely in the hands of the legislative body. From hence, numbers who were well-intentioned, with respect to the republic, had hoped that various abuses, which were caused by the bad administration of the executive power, would be redressed; while

while others openly exulted, that the system of the republic would be totally changed, or, what in their opinion would be infinitely more wise, destroyed altogether.

It is nevertheless to be remarked, that although numbers were in formal opposition to the directory from personal motives, a respectable part of the councils were no less anxious to preserve the constitution from violation within, and to maintain the respectability of the republic without. This sentiment had provoked a message of the council of five hundred to the directory, to inquire into the motives which had led them to send an expedition of galley-slaves to land on the coasts of England; an act which the council, indignant at the measure, declared to be contrary to the laws both of the republic and of nations.

No answer was returned to this message, nor were the motives of this expedition made known to the public. The first wrong step of the directory, in regard to this measure, was commuting the punishment of these galley-slaves, for which they had no authority from the laws. These criminals were to have served on the Irish expedition, in some post either disagreeable or dangerous, to avoid exposing the troops, for which they were to receive their pardon; but as the soldiers refused to act with them, the plan was laid aside. Sensible, however, of the injustice of sending them back to the galleys, after they had been promised their liberties, the directory, it is said, unwilling to let them loose on the public, instead of compounding with them by a diminution of punishment, since the law had already been violated in the first commutation, committed a second error, and sent

them to England, less with the intention of hostility than that of ridding themselves of the danger of the charge. This secret explanation led the council to make no further inquiry on the subject.

The peace made with the pope had scarcely been concluded, when the attention of the French general was recalled to the northern parts of Italy, by the appearance of the renewed armies of the Austrians, who were once more advancing with new hopes, and under new auspices, to rescue this rich and interesting part of the imperial domains from the hands of the republican invaders. Neither the late losses of their numerous armies, the defeat and capture of their most experienced and bravest generals, nor the surrender of their impregnable fortresses, could persuade them to withdraw from a contest where they had hitherto reaped little honour or advantage. But although Alvinzi, Wurmser, and the gallant youths of Vienna, had been obliged to bend before the better fortunes of Buonaparte, the Imperial court had yet one resource, which it fondly hoped would remedy all past evils, and dissolve the charm which bound victory always to the car of Buonaparte. The court of Vienna was fully persuaded, that the presence of the archduke would infuse a new spirit into the languishing and disheartened troops, and that the conqueror of Italy would soon form a counterpart to the deliverer of Germany.

In order to make success more sure, the archduke led with him a part of the army with which he had driven the French out of Germany the preceding year; who, being pushed across the Rhine, which was well guarded on every quarter, were not likely to make another e-

cursion speedily on that side. The directory took similar precautions, and detached from the armies cantoned on that river a considerable division under general Bernadotte; so that the flower of both the Austrian and French armies were now assembled at the foot of the Noric Alps, to decide a quarrel which had begun near the shores of the German ocean.

Since the defeat of the Austrians along the Adige, previous to the surrender of Mantua, the French occupied the left part of the Arisio to the place where it empties itself into that river; and the right side of the Piava, from its source in the Alps, to the Adriatic. The Austrian forces were recruiting on the Tagliamento, passing in small divisions through the Frioul and Carniola, and advancing, as they formed themselves, towards the Piava. Some slight skirmishes had taken place between the advanced posts of the two armies before Buonaparte returned from the interlude of the papal war to open the serious drama with prince Charles. While the French general was marshalling his troops on the Brenta, the archduke had advanced to the Piava. The centre of his army was placed on the small river of Cordevote, his right reached to the Adige, near Salurn, and his left extended on the side of the Saleutolo. The centre of the Austrian army withdrew, on the approach of Massena's division, to Feltre, and fell back on Belluno. The division under Serrurier, which was cantoned at Afoto, passed the Piava, near the village of Vidor, while Guieux, who commanded the right wing of the army, passing the same river, advanced as far as Sacila, on the high road from Vicenza to Palma-Nuova. As the French advanced, the

Austrians continued retreating, till they had repassed the Tagliamento, the banks of which they had so fortified from the mountains to the Adriatic, as to render the further progress of the French extremely hazardous, if not impossible.

In six days this French army had marched from their cantonments to the border of the river, where they were compelled to halt, in order to deliberate on the measures to be taken to pass this new bulwark of the Austrian dominions. The centre of the Austrian army had fallen back on the side of Cadore, where the mountains separate the states of Venice from the Tyrol; this body of troops was kept in action by a division under Massena, drawn off from the main army of the French, while the left wing of this army, under Joubert, was ordered to penetrate through the Tyrol into Carinthia, by ascending the Adige up to its junction with the Eisach, near Balzano, and afterwards following this river to Brixen; from which town he was to descend along the stream of the Riantz to the sources of the Drave.

In the mean time, the archduke, with the main army, was safely entrenched behind the deep and rapid Tagliamento, drawing his provisions from the fertile Frioul, by Gradisca and Goritz, and from the Venetian country, between the Tagliamento and the Alps, which formed a half circle behind him. In this space were situated the towns of Treviso, Udine, and Palma-Nuova, to cover his retreat, if, by any unfortunate occurrence, from any extraordinary impulse of audacity, the French should attempt and force the passage of the river.

Had the waters of the Tagliamento continued to flow with their usual

usual volume and impetuosity, the French might have found the enterprise extremely difficult; but a sudden frost having arrested the thaw, and the torrents on the Glaciers and the higher Alps, the river had sunk so as to be fordable in several places. Buonaparte, drawing a favourable augury from this fortunate interposition of the northeasterly wind, made instant dispositions for the passage of the river; ordering general Guieux to cross it to the right of the Austrian entrenchments, and Bernadotte, with his battalions from the Rhine, to perform the same operation on the left. The whole line ranged itself in order of battle. General Duphot first threw himself into the river, at the head of a brigade of light-infantry, and soon crossed to the opposite bank, supported by the grenadiers of the division under general Guieux; General Murat, who made the same movement on the left, was, in the same manner, supported by the division of grenadiers under Bernadotte. The Austrian cavalry several times charged the French infantry, but were continually repulsed. The whole of the republican army having now passed the river, had formed itself for a general attack, when the Austrians, struck with terror at the boldness of the enterprise, the superiority of the French artillery which they had felt in the severe cannonade that had preceded, and taken place during the passage, and by the promptitude and dexterity of the French, fell back on every side; but, when general Guieux had forced the village where the archduke had established his head quarters, the rout of the Austrian army became general. The prince seeing no hope but in flight, withdrew hastily,

during the night, to the only retreat which the daring manœuvres of the French had left him, and secured himself from danger among the ravines of the mountains, leaving part of his artillery, and the towns of Palma-Nuova, Udine, and all the Venetian territory, as far as the confines of Carinthia and Carniola, to the mercy of the conqueror.

The French lost no time in taking advantage of this important victory, although it was impossible for them to pursue the Austrians as fast as they retreated, and who did not halt till they reached the valley at the foot of the Alps, through which run the Drave and the Murh. In this position, the archduke once more formed his army; and a second time, aided by ramparts of ice and snowy mountains, he thought himself out of the reach of further attack, at least till he could get around him the means of making more effectual resistance than he had done at the passage of the Tagliamento. By taking this position, the archduke not only protected the retreat of his artillery, and heavy baggage, but reinforced the passes amongst the mountains of the Tyrol against general Joubert, although the provinces of Istria and the Frioul, as far as the sources of the Ydris, lay open to the French. While the right division of the republican army advanced on the borders of the Adriatic, the left wing, under Joubert, was scaling the Tyrolian Alps.

On the 21st of March, this general attacked the Austrians under general Laudohn at Lawis; and, after an obstinate conflict, in which they made four thousand prisoners, seized the bridge of Newmark, in order to cut off the retreat of the

P 3 Austrian

Austrians to Bolfano. A second bloody conflict ensued near this town, on the banks of the Adige, which ended in favour of the French, who took possession of the place, while Laudohn effected his further retreat to Clausen, among the mountains, which present at this place a natural and almost impregnable series of fortifications, and which have always been considered as the most formidable bulwarks of the Austrian empire on that side of the Alps. The position which the Austrian general had taken would have succeeded fully to his expectations, but for the daring impetuosity of the French. Aided by these almost inaccessible fortresses, the Austrians met their attack, and broke down the French columns with the force of their artillery; and the day would have ended in the total defeat of the assailants, had not some divisions of light infantry, during the attack, climbed with infinite difficulty the heights that hung over the left of the Austrian army, and tearing up the rocks, rolled them down on the enemy, thus giving time for the columns to rally, who took advantage of the confusion occasioned by this strange and unexpected manœuvre. The Austrians were terrified into flight, and left all their artillery and 1,500 prisoners more behind them. Laudohn fearing, that, if he retreated in the direction of the mountains, he should meet with the centre division under Massena, turned his army towards Innsbruck, while Joubert marched into Brixen, where he made an important capture of all the magazines of this division of the Austrian army.

The centre of the republican army, under Massena, in the meanwhile, continued the pursuit of

the centre division of the Austrians, who had retreated precipitately from the heights of Cadore, on hearing the event of the passage of the Tagliamento. This river Massena also passed without opposition, but nearer its source, and met with no appearance of resistance till he advanced to the bridge of Casa-Sola, which the Austrians had fortified. The resistance was short; the French, in close columns, forced the passage, and continued the pursuit to Ponteba, a little town on the Fella, and which belonged conjointly to the emperor and the states of Venice. From Ponteba, general Massena continued his way towards the banks of the Drave, over heights, and along roads, which were almost impassable, till he came to Tarwis, among the Alps, known for its iron founderies, and also for being the most elevated town in Europe.

The right wing of the French army, which had routed the left division of the Austrians under prince Charles, had taken possession of the cities of Udine and Palma-Nuova, and had entered on the Austrian Frioul, which was left to its own defence, having no other fortress than that of Gradisca. This post was, however, well fortified; and, though not capable of supporting a long siege, was fitted to retard, at least for some time, the march of the invaders; particularly as the badness of the weather co-operated with the fortress against them. The Austrians had, however, miscalculated with respect to the mode of attack. The French, notwithstanding the showers of artillery, took the advanced works with their bayonets in open day; the commander, advised by Bernadotte that the scaling ladders were on the

the point of being applied, and that he could no longer restrain the fury of his soldiers, took advantage of the ten minutes given him by the French general, and the garrison surrendered prisoners of war.

The French, by the surrender of this place, were now in possession of all the Austrian dominions between the Alps and the Adriatic; and, as if the possession was to have been permanent, Buonaparte published at Goritz, the capital of the province he had conquered, a proclamation to the inhabitants, instituting a provisional form of government, after dissolving the former administrations; promising to the people not only protection to their persons, properties, civil and religious institutions, but also the restoration of their ancient rights and privileges; and named fifteen of the principal inhabitants as members of this central administration. The port of Trieste, and the country lying on the Adriatic, submitted without resistance to the arms of the republic.

General Massena had advanced across the Alps with his centre division to the town of Tarwis, when prince Charles, who had now retreated to Clagenfurt, the capital of Carinthia, detached a considerable division to cover the retreat of a body of troops that were escaping from general Guieux, and to oppose his further progress. These divisions met on the heights above Tarwis, where the snow yet lay some feet thick; and a severe contest took place in this position, and ended in the defeat of the Austrians, who retreated back to the head-quarters at Clagenfurt. General Guieux, in the mean time, continued the pursuit of the co-

lumn along the Lisonzo, which he had previously defeated at the village of Butsero. This column was composed of troops that were the flower of the Austrian army, and were escorting the heavy artillery, and almost all the baggage belonging to the archduke. The rear of this column, throwing every obstacle in the way of the French, retarded their march; but, being pressed by the impetuosity of the pursuers, they halted at the post of Chinze, where they entrenched themselves, in order to give time for the escort to proceed, and waited the arrival of the French. The post, though vigorously defended, was taken by assault, and the whole of the rear made prisoners. The escort which had escaped the pursuit of Guieux, having retreated a considerable way towards Clagenfurt, was met in its way by general Massena, who had descended the mountains of Tarwis, and, after a slight conflict, were made prisoners; and the whole of the convoy fell into the hands of the French. Bernadotte having drawn off his division to the right, followed the course of the Save; and, having taken possession of Laubach, made himself master of the remainder of the province of Carniola.

General Joubert, with the left wing of the French army, was still entangled among the Tyrolian Alps. He had pursued General Laudohn in his retreat towards Inspruck after the battle of Brixen; but, as the continuance of this pursuit would have interrupted the unity of the operations of the French army, he returned to the banks of the Rient, ascended this torrent to its source, and crossed the summits of those Alps that divide the streams which flow into the Adriatic from those

that take their course to augment the rivers that swell the Black Sea. Above the village of Innichin, on the opposite side of the mountain, the Drave takes its source; from hence Joubert descended in the direction of the stream along the defiles, where an inconsiderable force might have arrested his progress; being obliged, in the space of fifteen leagues from this village to the town of Lintz, to cross fifteen times the river. From Lintz he continued, without opposition, his march along the Drave, and joined the main army assembled at Clagenfurt, from whence prince Charles, on the approach of the French, had made his further retreat.

The French army was now in the capital of Carinthia, and were masters of the greater part of this province, and of the Tyrol, of Carniola, the Frioul, Istria, and, in short, of all the territory from the sea to the country over which they had marched, and almost in the heart of the Austrian dominions. At Clagenfurt, Buonaparte published another proclamation to the inhabitants of Carinthia, as he had before done to those of Geritia. He informed them, that his present appearance amongst them was the act of the court of Vienna; the ministers of which had betrayed the empire, by obstinately refusing to hear of any propositions of peace, or to acknowledge the existence of the French republic.

He declared to them, that the price of their neutrality in the present contest should be an exemption from all contribution; and that the taxes which they paid to the emperor should be collected only to pay for the provisions, and repair the damages necessarily attendant on the march of an army.

Previous to the publication of

this proclamation, Buonaparte, who, in a campaign of about twenty days, had defeated the Austrians in ten pitched battles, had scaled mountains that were deemed almost inaccessible, who had reduced the army of his retreating enemy to half its original number, and was now within a few days march of the seat of empire, wrote to the archduke, exhorting him, by divers considerations, to reflect on the circumstances in which they were mutually placed, and to interpose his influence to determine the cabinet of Vienna to put an end to the horrors of war, and the further effusion of blood.

The answer of the archduke was cool and unconciliating. He observed that it was not his business to examine into the causes, nor to seek to end the quarrels of belligerent nations; and that not being authorized by the emperor to enter into any treaty, that Buonaparte must not deem it unreasonable if he should decline entering with him into any negotiation, for which he must wait for superior orders; as the object was of high importance, and not within the reach of his instructions.

It was evident from this answer, that the court of Vienna entertained hope of extricating itself from the danger which seemed to menace it from the approach of the republican armies. The archduke had taken his positions between Judenburg and Newmark, waiting the arrival of fresh troops. The city of Vienna, in the mean while, was thrown into great consternation. The dread of seeing the French under the walls of Vienna had led the government to the resolution of arming the people in a mass. Some thousands of workmen were employed in raising new works around the

the city. The merchants, and the students of the university, formed themselves into companies; the peasants poured in from various quarters to enroll themselves; the princes and nobility took arms, and mingled their names with those of the common people; and the court, by condescending proclamations, exerted themselves to animate the multitude to take an active part in the common cause.

Notwithstanding the confidence which the government had in the valour or good disposition of its untrained subjects, the people had not the same assurance. The bank of Vienna was obliged to suspend its payments, not being able to answer the demands of those who thought their money insecure. Measures were taken to stop the emigration of the rich inhabitants, as well as to prevent the too great affluence of people from the invaded provinces. Foreigners of every age and sex were ordered to leave Vienna in the space of three days; and though the government endeavoured by its edicts to inspire confidence, precautions were taken to remove the treasure and precious effects of the state into Hungary, to diminish, at least, the spoils, if they could not prevent the triumph, of the conqueror.

Buonaparte finding that the cabinet would listen to no conciliating measures, ordered his army to advance. The van of the Austrian army, strongly posted at Freisach, was attacked by the division under Massena, and driven from their entrenchments by the bayonet. This corps had been reinforced by eight battalions of grenadiers who had been employed in the siege of Kehl, and great reliance was placed on their exertions. This reinforcement retarded for a while the pro-

gress of Massena's division; but the French infantry having taken them in flank, they were compelled to fall back on the main army, which retreated beyond the Murh, and left the French in possession of Newmark and Judenburg. By these means the junction with the main army of Laudohn's division, which had marched with rapidity from Inspruck across the mountains, from the Inn to the Murh, which was the great object of the precipitate march of the French, was altogether defeated.

In order to favour this junction, prince Charles had sent to Buonaparte, a few hours after having rejected his pacific overtures, to demand, for a short interval, a suspension of arms: this stratagem was too evident; no event having taken place, since their previous correspondence, likely to occasion any change in the archduke's mind towards peace; and, as his conversion was justly suspected, his demand was peremptorily refused.

The continued victorious march of the French army, and their arrival in the Murh, within as short a distance from Vienna, as the united armies of Prussia and Austria had been in the campaign of 1792 from Paris, awoke, at length, the fears of the Imperial cabinet, and led it to take into consideration the letter which Buonaparte had written to the archduke from Clagenfurt. The result of this deliberation was, the dispatching the count de Bellegarde and general Morveld to Buonaparte, to request, formally, a suspension of arms.

The note remitted by these negotiators contained, in substance, that the emperor, having nothing more at heart than to see the termination of hostilities, which had so long desolated both countries, and
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having duly considered the letter which the French general had addressed to the archduke from Clagenfurt, had sent them to confer with him on the subject; and, in order to attain the desirable end of finishing, in the speediest manner, that disastrous war, and to obviate the delays and obstacles which a continuance of hostilities might put on the negotiations, they requested, on the part of the archduke, an armistice of ten days. Buonaparte, in answer to this note, observed, that in the situation in which the two armies then were, a suspension of arms could not but be disadvantageous to the French; but, since this suspension was an opening to peace, so desirable and so necessary to both nations, he acceded to the archduke's request. He reminded those negotiators, that the French republic had often manifested these pacific dispositions towards the emperor, and expressed his hope that peace would be the immediate result of this suspension, the term of which he limited to ten days: the conditions were, the possession of the fortrefs of Gratz, Leoben, and other posts on the frontiers of Hungary, and from thence to the Adriatic, which would have greatly strengthened his position, with regard to the object of his march, if the negotiation, during the suspension, had not succeeded.

Although Buonaparte had hitherto pursued through Italy and Germany an army of fugitives, and although he was within a few days march of Vienna, and probably on the point of overturning the Imperial throne, which had so long ruled, or balanced the destinies of Europe, yet he could not dissemble to himself the extreme difficulties, if not imminent dangers, to which he was exposed. His rapid marches,

across ravines and precipices, and over mountains, where no traces of roads existed, had compelled him to leave behind the greater part of his heavy artillery; while his army, from the rigours of the season, and the constant state of action in which they had been kept, had very sensibly diminished; and though the remainder preserved to the last the same courage and ardour, yet they were insufficient to preserve the vast extent of country which they had conquered; and the positions which he had taken, though highly favourable for further conquest, had he been sufficiently reinforced, were no less fitted for the operations of the enemy, which he conceived he had left behind him in the states of Venice.

To reach Vienna by the speediest direction, the French army had to pass the mountains of Styria, which rise for a long extent from the Murh, almost within sight of this seat of empire. These mountains, easily defended by the retreating army, and the succours which were pouring in from all quarters, would have rendered extremely difficult the remainder of his march. These difficulties might have been obviated, by his taking a direction towards the Danube, by crossing over from the Murh to the Ems, along the banks of which his army would have found an easier mode of arriving at the end of their expedition; but the circuit was too long, and the army was too much diminished, to suffer such a dismemberment of it as would be necessary to keep up its communications with Italy. The dangers arising from the enemy before him had been well weighed by Buonaparte. By daring courage, and the boldest efforts, he had, in the space of a month, led his army to conquests,

quests, which the most ardent imagination had scarce ventured to contemplate; but he made no calculations, on the outset of his expedition, for other enemies than those with whom he was in open hostility, and therefore had not provided resources against them.

In accepting, therefore, the offers of the armistice, and in signing, within the limited time, the preliminaries of peace, Buonaparte gave, perhaps, as solid a proof of his talents as a statesman, as he had hitherto done of his valour as a soldier.

CHAP. X.

Commencement of Hostilities on the Rhine. Positions of the French and Austrian Armies. Retreat of the Austrians behind the Lahn, and Passage of the French across the Rhine. Proposals of the Austrian General for an Armistice rejected. Defeat of the Austrians on the Lahn. Further Defeats of the Austrians, and Retreat to Frankfort. Position of the Army of the Rhine and Moselle under general Moreau. Passage of the Rhine in Face of the Austrians at Kehl. Dangerous Positions of the French. Defeat of the Austrians, and Capture of the Fort of Kehl, the most brilliant Action of the German War. Preparations for the Invasion of Germany. Arrival of the News of the Preliminaries of Peace to the Armies on the Rhine. Sentiments of the different Parties at Paris respecting the Peace. Causes of the Signature of the Preliminaries by Buonaparte. Government of Venice. Sketch of the different Situations of Venice with respect to Austria, and the French Republic. Accusations of the French against the Venetian Government. Insurrection against the French. Massacre of the French at Verona. Letter of Buonaparte to the Senate. Answer and Proclamation of the Senate. Retaking of Verona by Augereau. Laudohn's March from the Tyrol. Danger of the French in the Venetian States. News of Peace. March of the French to Venice. Declaration of War. Annihilation of the Government of Venice, and Escape of the Patricians. Provisionary Government. The Arsenal, the Fleet, and Stores. Venetian Islands in the Adriatic and Archipelago made French Departments. Reflections on the Fate of the Venetian Government. Formation of the Cisalpine Republic. Government of Genoa. Enmity between the popular and patrician Parties. Causes of its apparent Neutrality with respect to the Coalition and France. Secret Assistance said to be given to the Emperor by the Genoese Government. Increasing Discontents of the popular Party. General Insurrection of the Genoese against the Government. Desertion of the Military Forces to the People. Dissolution of the Patrician Government of Genoa. Provisional Government formed. State of Genoa changed into that of the Ligurian Republic.

WHILST these preliminaries were the subjects of discussion between the archduke and Buonaparte, the Imperial and French armies had begun hostilities on the Rhine. Each of these armies had been considerably weakened by the divisions which had been drawn off to recruit the armies of Italy, which had been in continued action during the winter; whilst, according to convention, though but ill ob-

served,

served, the northern armies had been in cantonments during the rigour of that season. The return of Laudohn into the Tyrol, the march of Alvinzi by Fiuma and Trieste, and the hostile preparations making by the Venetians, each of which movements menaced with danger the army of Buonaparte, then entangled in the mountains of Styria, and which had influenced him to sign the preliminaries of peace, led the directory also to order the French generals Hoche and Moreau to make the most rapid movements, and pass, with their respective armies, into the circles of Franconia and Suabia, to cause a diversion of the Austrian armies, or form a junction with Buonaparte.

The right and centre of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under General Hoche, extended from Kreutznach in the Palatinate, along the Rhine, to Düsseldorf. The left wing was cantoned in the duchy of Berg, on the right of that river. The Austrian army had taken their positions between the Sieg and the Lahn; but, finding themselves too weak to hazard the event of a battle on those plains, they withdrew from thence, and took their former position behind the formidable entrenchments of the Lahn, sending back their baggage and heavy artillery towards Frankfort, together with every thing that might retard their march, if circumstances should again compel them to make a retreat similar to that of the last campaign.

The retreat of the Austrians beyond the Lahn enabled the various divisions of the French army to pass the Rhine without obstacle. Here they found the Austrians firmly entrenched and fortified on both banks of the Lahn; but

as general Wernecht, the commander in chief of the Austrian forces, felt that his army was not equal to a long or vigorous resistance, he demanded a further prolongation of the armistice, under pretence that preliminaries of peace had been signed; but, as he refused to comply with the conditions which general Hoche exacted, which were, the delivery of the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, and the redoubts of the Lahn, the negotiation dropped, and the two armies prepared for action. The attack began with a brisk cannonade. The whole of the French line was soon in motion; the infantry, supported by the fire of the light artillery, and by the hussars and light dragoons, poured down, with their usual velocity, on the Austrian entrenchments. The centre of the line of redoubts was carried by the commander in chief. Lefevre, who led on the right wing of the French, broke through the left of the Imperialists, whilst the right fled before general Championnet, who commanded the left wing of the French army.

The Austrian general, during the night, retreated beyond the Lahn, leaving behind him the artillery of his redoubts, and 4000 prisoners. The French continued the pursuit, and came up with the Austrians at Ukerath and Altenkirchen, where they had taken strong positions. The Austrians were again routed, with considerable loss, by the division under general Lefevre; whilst general Ney marched rapidly to Diedorf, where he found the reserve of the Austrian army, consisting of 6,000 men, whose attack he sustained with a division of 500 hussars till the infantry came up, when he drove them from their positions with considerable loss.

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The left of the French army crossed the Upper Lahn, and took possession of Wetzlaar; and, forcing the Austrians to cross the Nidda, pursued them to the gates of Frankfort.

In the mean while, general Moreau, who commanded the army of the Rhine and Moselle, which was cantoned along the Rhine, from the lines of Weissemburg to Huningue, made preparations to cross this river at Straßburg. The want of machinery to put this project in execution was in some measure compensated by the decrease of the waters, which permitted the French to make two bridges from the main land to a part of the islands in the Rhine; and other parts of the river were fordable, from Brisach to the mouth of the Murg. The centre of the army, stationed at Straßburg under general Duhem, were ordered to make the first real efforts, whilst false attacks were made, in various places, to divert the attention of the Austrians. At the mouth of the river Ill, in sight of the opposing army, were moored the little fleet, made up of the boats which had previously been put in requisition. Part of this division, notwithstanding the heavy fire from the opposite side, made good their landing; and, having taken possession of an island from which they had driven the Austrians, sent back their boats to bring over the remainder. During this manœuvre, the French, exposed to the Austrian artillery, lost considerable numbers; but General Vandamme succeeded in keeping his position, on the banks, till a greater number of troops had landed, who were immediately formed into columns, and led on by general Duhem to the attack of the village of Dier-

sheim, where the Austrians had assembled their forces. In this attack they succeeded, after a long and bloody conflict; but which gave time for the landing of the remainder of the infantry, which was not completed till near noon. To protect the cavalry and light artillery, which had not yet crossed the river, the French army took such positions as prevented the Austrians from offering any considerable resistance to their passage.

In the mean while the body of troops, with which the French had been engaged, were reinforced by divisions which had marched from their cantonments at Offenburg and Stollhoffen, and which gave the Austrians a considerable superiority. Thus augmented, they attacked with so much impetuosity the village of Diersheim, from which they had been dislodged, and which was occupied by the centre of the French division, that the village was in great part destroyed. The entrenchments, which general Desaix had hastily thrown up, were for some time in the power of the assailants, who were not repulsed till after a desperate and most bloody conflict.

Night separated the combatants; during which time, the bridge being finished, the greater part of the French cavalry and artillery effected their passage, and the Austrians also received further reinforcements. The attack began again on the part of the Austrians, who directed their forces, as on the preceding day, against Diersheim. Their artillery had silenced that of the French; when the Austrian general, taking advantage of this success, attacked the village with the main body of his infantry, and made considerable havoc amongst the French, notwithstanding

ing the manœuvre of general d'Avoust, who had braved the fire of the Austrian artillery, and thrown himself, with his division, consisting of two half brigades, on their left flank. The French, though compelled to give way in the preceding part of the day, having received a reinforcement by the passage of the remainder of their cavalry and artillery, formed themselves in line of battle between the villages of Diersheim and Honnau, and began to act offensively in their turn. The centre, commanded by Vandamme, were ordered to take possession of the villages of Lientz and Hobine, and dislodge the Austrians; the right, under general Dufour, to seize on fort Kehl, and throw themselves on the banks of the Kintzing; and the left to attack the opposing wing of the Imperial army. The combat was not of long duration. The Austrians, weakened by the conflicts of that and the preceding day, and disheartened at the enterprise of the French, fled before the charge of the bayonet, and left the republicans masters of their whole park of artillery of Kehl, and the surrounding posts and villages. Between 4 and 5,000 prisoners fell into their hands, among whom were several officers of rank, and great numbers were killed on both sides. The French army continued the pursuit of the Imperialists who were retreating towards the Danube, and were again beginning their march into Germany, when news arrived of the signing of the preliminaries of peace by the archduke and Buonaparte.

The passage of the Rhine, in the face of the Imperial army, was the last exploit of the French during this destructive campaign, and

added another distinguished laurel to those which Moreau had gathered from his retreat through Germany the preceding summer. The news of peace reached also the army of the Sambre and Meuse, whilst they were engaged before the gates of Frankfort, which general Wernecht was defending in vain. The grateful sound was proclaimed in the midst of the scene of carnage: the roar of the cannon was interrupted by cries of tumultuous joy; and the contending armies, both officers and men, throwing aside the blood-stained weapons, threw themselves into each other's arms, and forgot the ferocity of the soldier in the embrace of friendship and of peace.

The signature of the preliminaries of peace diffused a general joy throughout France. The extent of the preliminaries was at first little known. The directory, in their message to the councils, and in their speeches to the officers who presented them with the various trophies of victory which the armies had gathered in the course of this short campaign, gave no further information on the subject than, that the basis of the preliminaries was the renunciation of the Belgic provinces, and the formation of a republic in Lombardy. Uncertainty respecting the extent of the compensation to be granted to the emperor, and the limits of the new Italian republic, had caused some inquietudes respecting the definitive settlement. Some were loud in their expressions of regret that Buonaparte had not delayed signing them till he reached Vienna; the greater number were thankful that peace was restored in any shape; but when the circumstances attending the preliminary pacification were known, and the imminent danger

danger into which a further delay on the part of Buonaparte would have led his army, the murmurs were turned into approbation.

The French commander had no sooner terminated the contest with the emperor, than he bent his views to the opulent but defenceless state of Venice—a design, to which (from the nature of the treaty afterwards signed between the two powers) it is probable the court of Vienna did not object. To give a colour to this proceeding, the French allege, that, during the whole of the contest, the Venetian government evinced a manifest partiality to the cause of the coalition.

“The only power in Europe (say they) of which Venice had any real dread was the house of Austria. The wary policy of the senate, which had balanced the pretensions of every other state, could not keep them secure from the encroaching ambition of the late emperor Joseph the second, who was engaged with their government in a negotiation for certain exchanges of territory, which, from the imperiousness of the demand, and the peremptoriness of the refusal, had worn much the appearance of approaching hostilities when the event of the French revolution took place. This event, which interested the emperor of Germany more than any other power in Europe, and the effects of which were immediately felt by him in the Low Countries, which broke out into open revolt some months after, had removed all dread of further claims on Venice, either from himself whilst he lived, or from his successors; and the senate might have taken the opportunity of crushing these pretensions altogether by strengthening its alliance with France, which, at that period, might have

been effected without any sacrifice, had it not been persuaded that France would be crushed by the coalition which was then forming against it. This persuasion continued to guide the policies of the senate after Buonaparte had scaled the Alps; but this policy became more complicated in proportion as the French army drew nearer to their states. The rapid successes which attended the French on their first entrance into Italy was no security for their continuance; the senate was well instructed, that in the various eruptions of this kind those early victories had been followed by entire defeats; and, in the present case, little doubt was entertained, but that the revolutionary torrent descending from the Alps would dissipate and sink away in the plains of Lombardy.

“An adherence to the coalition (they add), notwithstanding the invasion of Italy, was judged to be the safest policy. When marshal Beaulieu fled from the French, in the campaign of 1796, he found refuge in the Venetian states, which openly protected him, and suffered him, without remonstrance, to take possession of the important fortress of Peschiera, built on the lake of Guarda. Buonaparte, at that period, without making any remonstrances on his part, advised the senate, that since they permitted the violation of their territory without complaint or resistance on the part of the Austrians, he should pursue his enemy wherever he could find them; and informed the senate, that the ties of long friendship which had subsisted between the two countries would lead the French armies to maintain the most exact discipline, and pay every due respect to the laws and government of the country.

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"The neighbourhood of a revolutionary army, and a swarm of new republics which was hovering every where in the north of Italy, around it, had more weight with this wary senate than the assurances of the French general. The frontiers of the Venetian republic became now the principal seat of war. The Adige, like the Rhine, often flowed with the blood of the contending armies. The Venetian fortresses often changed masters. Parts of its territory, such as the town of Brescia, situated on the limits of the Milanese, declared its independence, and in no part of the country lying around Mantua and the Adige was the government of Venice respected.

"The contending armies continued therefore to keep possession of the Venetian territory, as if it belonged respectively to themselves, retiring or advancing, according to the circumstances of conquest or defeat; whilst the government continued, in appearance, a calm spectator of the contest, making only a slight provision for its own security, by placing an army of Schavonians, of twelve or fifteen thousand men, in the Lagoon, so as to prevent the contending parties from approaching too near the seat of government. The successive defeats of the Austrian armies before Mantua had begun to awaken the senate from its dream of the eventual success of the coalition; and the fear of the emperor's power gave way to a terror of another kind, that of the revolutionary torrent, which, instead of dissipating itself as they imagined, had now swollen into a mighty river, increased as it had been in its passage through Italy by the multitude of

tributary or auxiliary streams. The senate had discovered that Buonaparte was not the dupe of their professions or their policy, and they conjectured, probably, that the day of explanation was deferred only on account of the present situation of the French and Austrian armies. The distant danger to be apprehended from the empire was so inconsiderable, compared with the imminent destruction which threatened the remaining despotic governments of Italy from the progress of the revolutionary spirit, that the senate had no other alternative than the choice of the most prudent means of subduing it, and preserving their own power, in seizing on some favourable opportunity of joining their forces with those of the emperor, for the destruction of the invaders. The retreat of the archduke, and the march of the French towards the capital of the Austrian dominions, seemed to be the favourable moment when, without risk or danger, the senate, by co-operating with the Imperial forces, might strike a decisive blow, and insure the continuance of their authority, not more by the extermination of the French, than by conciliating the favour of the emperor by the importance of the services it should render. It was nevertheless prudent to dissemble: but whilst the members of the government continued their usual marks of respect and neutrality, their emissaries were employed in every part of the republic in exciting the people to take arms against the French, whom they represented as bands of assassins*, whose object was general massacre and plunder.

"Buonaparte was nevertheless

* Surely the representation was but too true.

well informed of the perfidious intentions of the senate, but hoped that the forces he had left in Lombardy, under general Augerau, would be sufficient to overawe the Venetian government, and prevent open hostilities from taking place. An insurrection against the French had already broken out in the province of Bergamo, the districts of Bressan, and the valley of Sabbia, the progress of which was stopped by the activity and prudence of Augerau; but when the news arrived of marshal Laudohn's progress in the Tyrol, which had been attended with some slight advantages over the French, and also of general Alvinzi's march into Italy by Carniola, in the rear of Buonaparte's army, the report was universally circulated that the French were on the point of laying down their arms, and that nothing was wanting to render the victory decisive but a general movement and co-operation on the part of the loyal subjects of the Venetian government.

"The influence of the priests and nobles," continue the advocates of France, "was sufficient to blow into a flame the insurrection which they had been secretly preparing. A crusade against the French, as regicides and atheists, was publicly preached by the priests as a work of sacred duty. The religious season of Easter was pointed out as well fitted for the execution of this pious labour. Fifty thousand peasants immediately assembled, and demanded from their governors the instruments of vengeance. The senate, notwithstanding the great probability of success, appeared reluctant to consent to their demands; but its agents instructing the multitude where magazines were placed, the insurgents were soon equipped,

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and formed into regiments, under the direction of regular officers employed in the service of the state. The call to arms, in the name of the people, now became general; every inhabitant, under pain of death, was ordered to range himself under the colours of his canton; and, as soon as the disposition to insurrection assumed this consistent appearance, the body-guard of the government, the army of the Slavonians already mentioned, joined themselves also to the army of the insurgents; and, after attacking the French at Vicenza, Padua, and other parts of the Venetian territory, and (putting to death all those whom they found in Verona, together with the sick in the hospitals) besieged, during eight days, the remainder who had taken refuge in the three castles of the city.

"The news of this insurrection reached Buonaparte, whilst he was pursuing the Austrians beyond Judenburg. He instantly wrote to the members of the Venetian government, that he was well informed of the full measure of their perfidy, which they had now put into execution. He represented to them, that, notwithstanding their dissimulation, or any disavowal they might make, the revolt had been prepared by them; and the cry of the multitude, "Death to the French!" was the effect of their suggestions. He warned them, that their atrocious perfidy should meet with its due punishment; and, that unless they took measures to disperse the insurgents, and put into his hands the instigators of the murders which had been committed on the French, he should instantly declare war against them, and would not cease his vengeance till he had annihilated their government. He informed

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them that his aide-de-camp was the bearer of his proposition, peace or war; for which he gave them twenty-four hours to determine.

"The doge, in reply to this letter, observed, that the members of government were overwhelmed with affliction at the receipt of Buonaparte's letter. He represented that the senate had ever entertained the firmest resolutions of preserving peace with the French republic; and that this disposition, on their part, was not lessened even under the present circumstances. He observed, that the present insurrection ought not to be considered as any infringement of that neutrality, for that the people, who were sincerely attached to their government, had flown to arms only to suppress an unexpected revolt which had broken out in certain towns; and that, although some disorders might have been occasioned inseparable from insurrections of this nature, the government had taken the necessary measures to appease them. He assured the general, that his demand of delivering up those who had instigated those murders, of which he complained, should be complied with as soon as they were discovered; and to terminate this disagreeable event to the mutual satisfaction of both parties, he sent two deputies to concert with him the mode of his interposition to bring back to their allegiance those towns in their dominions beyond the Mincio, which had declared themselves independent.

"In the mean while the senate had issued a proclamation, in which they represented, that, reposing on the loyalty and impartiality of their conduct to the belligerent powers, they had judged the malevolent insinuations which had been raised, respecting the sincerity of their

peace intentions, unworthy of their notice. In this public act they disavowed a proclamation hostile to the French, which had been ascribed to one of the officers of government; and advised their faithful subjects to be persuaded, that the harmony and friendship between themselves and the French nation were in no manner changed. The evasive answer given by the senate to Buonaparte, in which they were careful not to commit themselves, either by avowing the insurrection, or ordering the insurgents to disarm; and the increase of the insurrection on the Adige, down which marshal Laudohn was descending from the Tyrol, to join the insurgents at Verona, who, having possession of the city, had put it in a state of respectable defence, and were capable of making considerable resistance, were decisive proofs (the French alleged), if any were yet wanting, of the determined hostility of the senate of Venice. General Laudohn arrived with his division near Verona, at the moment when Augereau, having made up a little army of French and Lombards, had attacked the insurgents, and regained the city. The army of Augereau was, however, too inconsiderable to make a long resistance to the combined forces of this new coalition: but the news of the signature of the preliminaries of peace at Leoben reaching the contending parties at this critical juncture, the government of Venice was left at the mercy of the French."

Such is the partial statement, given by the conquerors, of the provocations, which they allege induced them to break the sacred line of neutrality, and ravage an independent, and, at least, not professedly hostile state. From a strict regard to impartiality, and a desire

of eliciting the truth from discordant statements, we have laid it before our readers. But nothing can, in our opinion, justify the conduct of the French in this act of aggression; nor would the statement, if true in every part, warrant the annihilation of an ancient and respectable republic.

On the 20th of April, a division of 25,000 men encamped on the sea-shore within sight of Venice, whilst the division which had taken Verona pursued and disarmed the fugitive insurgents in the various towns in the states. Whilst the government remained trembling at Venice, Buonaparte published a manifesto at Palma-Nuova; in which, after detailing the various charges above enumerated, he enjoined the French ambassador to quit Venice, and made a formal declaration of war against the government; at the same time offering peace on condition that the three inquisitors of state, and ten of the principal senators, who, he supposed, were the chief instruments in the murder of the French foldiers, should be delivered into his hands. The conditions of the French general were no longer the subject of deliberation to the senate, whose authority was so totally annihilated, that they had only to receive the commands of the conqueror. Sufficient time was, however, given, possibly with the connivance of the French general, for such as were marked out as objects of resentment to escape, since such as fell into his hands were suffered to remain unpunished. The governors had abdicated their seats previously to the entry of the French army (12th May), and had entrusted the provisional authority to thirty senators, who had decreed that the demo-

cratic form of government should be restored, such as it existed before the revolution, at the close of the thirteenth century. Soon after the French had taken possession, a new municipality was installed, who formally proclaimed the dissolution of the old government, leaving the formation of a new system to circumstances which should hereafter arise from the will or convenience of the conquering party.

The capture of Venice, into which a hostile army had never before entered, put the French in possession of a treasure highly important to the republic, which was the naval forces, and the vast stores of every kind which their magazines and arsenals contained. The French also made an addition to their territory of the Venetian islands in the Adriatic and Archipelago, most of which are valuable, not only for the command which they give of those seas, but for the productions which they yield to commerce.

As nothing was immediately determined respecting the future fate of Venice, the municipalities held the provisional authorities, and the people, for the most part, prepared their minds for the adoption of a form of government resembling those republics which had hitherto taken their name from their situation on the right and left sides of the Po. The inconveniences of small governments having been sufficiently manifested in the republican dissensions and subdivisions of the conquered Italian states, such as those of Modena, the papal legations, and the emperor's territory, Buonaparte re-united these Cispadane and Transpadane governments into one, under the name of the Cisalpine Republic, and pre-

sented them with the French constitution for the regulation of their government.

The fall of Venice was immediately followed by that of Genoa. For a long period preceeding the French revolution, it is said an inveterate hatred had reigned between the patrician and popular parties of this state.

The invasion of the Austrians, and the events of Corsica, had, by the ruin of the famous bank of St. George, elevated the patrician in proportion as it had humbled the burgher; and every attempt made by the latter to raise themselves to the station which they before held in the state was immediately opposed by the jealous nobles. Things, however, would probably have remained in this state, had not the expedition of the French into Italy awakened the hopes and fears of the parties, according to their respective interests. The situation of the Genoese republic on the French frontier, and the disunion that reigned between this government and the court of Turin, hindered it from taking an active part in the coalition against France; but justly fearful, that if the French republic triumphed, the disaffected party of their own subjects would find a formidable ally in the principles of the revolution, the Genoese government (the French assert, and possibly with some truth) looked with a more favourable eye to the allied governments than to the revolutionary system.

The insolence of the disaffected party in Genoa continued to increase in proportion to the progress of the French victories; and on occasion of a festival given by the French minister at Genoa, such symptoms of opposition were displayed by them as gave serious alarms to the nobles

for the existence of their government; and the fermentation continued to increase till the dissolution of the government of Venice took place, when it broke forth into a popular insurrection, which threatened the existence of legal authority at Genoa.

This insurrection began early in May, with some of the most abandoned of the lower classes of the people, who, having put a person of the illustrious name of Doria at their head, seized on the principal posts of the city, released all prisoners except those who were confined for capital crimes, and demanded peremptorily the abolition of the patrician government, and the establishment of a more democratical form. The neutral parties, on this occasion, were the richer classes of citizens, who kept themselves in their houses waiting the event, and the principal part of the nobility, who left the city. The government, in order to counterbalance the force of the insurgents, armed others of a similar class in their favour, and joined to them such of the troops in whom they thought they could place their confidence. This counterpoise had at first some success; but when the parties came to parley, finding their interests to be the same, and that more plunder was to be gained by destroying than supporting the government, they united together, and then the connexion with the French became immediately apparent. The government was now reduced to the greatest distress. In vain were proclamations issued promising the people every sort of indulgence. The tumult continued to increase, without any further resistance on the part of the government; depredations were committed in the name of the people
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on the property of the nobles, most of whom abandoned the city ; and great numbers of those, who were suspected of attachment to their party, were arrested. The banditti, bearing in their hands the treaty between Charles V. and Andrew Doria, which they complained had been violated, threatened to force the gates of the palace. The grand council, or such members of that body as remained in the city, at length assembled (May 31), and, after a long deliberation, decreed that the government was dissolved ; and, having named a provisionary committee, to preserve order till the establishment of a new constitution could take place, abdicated every kind of authority with which, by the laws or customs of the state, they were invested.

The committee named by the great council finding the post to which they had been chosen too dangerous, refused to accept it ; on which the authority was placed in the hands of a temporary administration named by the leaders of

the mob. This new authority issued its mandates to recall the fugitives into Genoa, on pain of confiscation of their property ; and enjoined the inhabitants of the state to send their deputies to Genoa, with sufficient powers to lay the foundation of a new social organisation. The state, under the direction of Buonaparte, resumed its ancient name, and was now called the Ligurian Republic—a constitution which, like that of their Cisalpine neighbours, was provisionally adopted from the form of the French government, with whom the Genoese populace, to complete the farce, pretended to renew their treaty, whilst, in reality, they were only to be considered as conquered subjects of France.

It is impossible, indeed, not to see that the whole of this transaction was effected by French agency, French money, and by the dread of French power stationed on their frontiers, without which the mob of Genoa would easily have been subdued.

CHAPTER XI.

Partial Renewal of the French Legislature. Increase of the Anti-Directoryal Party. Nomination of Ba. thelemy to succeed Letourneur in the Directory. Pichegru President of the New Assembly. Repeal of different restraining Laws. Discussion on the Colonies. Denunciation against the Commissioners. Inculpations of the Directory and Ministers by the Anti-Directoryal Party in the Councils. Decrees against the Public Dilapidators. Resolutions on the Situation of the Directory, and the Conduct of its Opponents. Report of the Commission of Finance to diminish the Expenses of Government. Report of the Commission on the internal State of the Republic. Proposal for the Recall of the refractory Clergy, and the Abolition of the restraining Laws. Of the Emigrants from the Departments of the Rhine and Toulon. Formation of the Constitutional Circle in Support of the Directory. Suppressed by Vote of the Councils. Licentiousness of the Journalists. New Denunciations against the Ministers of Finance and Marine. Charges on the Ministry. Renewed Denunciations against the Directory. March of Troops round Paris within the Distance permitted by the Law. Explanation of the Directory. Application of the Directory for Supplies—rejected. De-

creed of the Councils for restraining the Power of the Directory, and for the Increase of their Body-Guard. Suspended State of the Negotiations for Peace between the Republic and the Emperor. Increase of Disaffection between the Legislative and Executive Authorities. Addresses from the Army, promising Support to the Directory. Denunciation of the Army-Addresses in the Councils. Report on the Subject of the Diffensions. Speech of the President of the Directory. Addresses of Departmental Administrations to the Councils. Preparations for Hostilities between the Executive Government and the Councils. Decrees of the Councils for arming the Citizens of Paris. Emigrants and Royalists at Paris prepared to take Advantage of the Diffensions. State of the Public Mind at Paris. Secret Plan of the proposed Attack on the Government known to the Directory. Events of the Revolution of the 18th of Fructidor. Assembly of the Councils near the Directorial Palace. Proclamations of the Directory to make known the Conspiracy. Pretended Correspondence of Pichegru with the Prince of Condé. Report of the Committee on the Conspiracy. Resolutions of the Councils. Repetitions on the indiscriminate Sentence of Exile, passed against divers Members of the Government and others.

TO return to the affairs of France.—In the first days of the month of Prairial, the new members chosen to the legislature took their seats agreeably to the constitutional act. By the election of this new third, which replaced an equal number of the members of the former convention, the balance in favour of the opposition was considerably increased. The opposition known by the appellation of the Clichy party, from meeting in the street of that name, had, however, conducted themselves with a degree of moderation which had hitherto proved a salutary restraint on the directorial power; but this party being reinforced by a considerable number of the members of the new third, whose sentiments corresponded with their own, were perhaps led into measures impolitic in some respects, and such as hastened their own downfall, and gave an ascendancy to their opponents.

The election of Barthelemy, the ambassador of the republic to the Helvetic confederacy, in the place of Letourneur, who was excluded by law, strengthened the

anti-directorial party, who, presuming on the support of two of the members of the executive government, the new director and Carnot, had little doubt that, with the majority which they possessed in the councils, the measures of government would be directed according to their own plans, which, as we before observed, were well meant, though too much of faction has always intermixed itself in the patriotism of the French. On the first day of the meeting of this renewed legislature, of which general Pichegru was elected president, that disposition of the famous law of the 3d of Brumaire, which excluded five of the formerly elected representatives, was repealed, as well as a law which enjoined non-residence in Paris to the ex-members of the late conventional body.

Further repeals were made of articles of the exclusive law of the third Brumaire already mentioned; the relations of emigrants, and those who had received the benefit of the amnesty were alike rendered eligible to public offices; but although most of the dispositions of that law were contrary to the spirit of civil liberty,

liberty, and the letter of the constitution, the repeal at that crisis of the statutes, which excluded those persons till the general peace from offices of trust, was, even by moderate persons, considered as neither wise nor expedient. The discussions respecting the state of the colonies were still more animated; the commissaries of the executive power were formally denounced by members of the council as the causes of the disorder and destruction in the colonies: and the directory, although anxious to prove by official documents that the state of the colonies and the services of the commissaries had been misrepresented, recalled them from their mission, now indeed on the point of expiring, having been limited to eighteen months.

These reforms were only preparatory to others of higher importance, which the majority of the councils had at that time in contemplation. The constitution had wisely entrusted the public purse in the hands of the representatives of the people; the prodigality of the government was universally complained of, as well as the means employed to replenish the public treasury. The ministers and the usurious contractors became objects of scrutiny, the latter of whom were sent as public depredators before the criminal tribunals. These excesses, for which the necessities of the state were pleaded as indulgences, were brought before the council in all their deformity; and it was justly observed, that those who had been guilty, or who had connived at such malversations, were no longer worthy of the confidence of the public. The demands of the directory for further supplies, which had been referred to a commission of finance, were the

subject of a report, which the orator made the vehicle of severe animadversion on the persons and conduct of the executive power, with respect to their prodigality, as they had undergone the censure of another member for their unconstitutional conduct with respect to the countenance which they had given to the revolutionary system in the Italian states.

The main object of this celebrated report was to curtail the expenditure of the government, placing the ordinary expenses a fifth below those of the peace-establishment, and providing a resource for the extraordinaries incurred by the war. This report, which the majority of the council regarded as a manual for the re-establishment of economy, was considered by the directorial party as an open declaration of hostility against the proceedings of government. The public was very sensibly affected by this discordance; the confidence which the prospect of speedy peace had inspired, and which had given, amongst other marks of national prosperity, a most rapid and extraordinary rise to the public funds, immediately subsided, and distrust and apprehension filled every mind.

The report of Gilbert Desmoulières on the finances was not the only subject of alarm to the directory. A report made by Camille Jordan, on priests and public worship, was equally disapproved by them, or at least they made it an instrument to work on the prejudices of the populace. This report was liberal and tolerant, and was profusely spread throughout the departments: the chief points were, the repeal of the various laws made against the refractory priests; the use of the external signs of worship which had been formally prohibi-

ed; the re-establishment of days of festivals which had been suppressed; the annulling the obligations laid on ministers of worship to make the declaration of their allegiance to the republic; and the repeal of every judgment against priests which had not yet received their due execution. This report was therefore considered as a complete answer to the various messages of the directory complaining of the insubordination and contempt of the laws, which they alleged was publicly preached by the refractory priests in every department. Though the report had not yet been carried into effect, yet as the disposition to toleration in the councils had been strongly marked, we cannot wonder that numbers of the unfortunate clergy were induced, on this prospect, to return to their country, some with passports, and many with no authority at all.

The indulgence which was proposed to be given to the priests was also intended to be conferred on other classes who had equal claims on the humanity of government. Amidst the crowds of emigrants from France, a certain description occupied the attention of the legislature, those who fled from Toulon when the English were forced to retreat, and those who had sought refuge on the German side of the Rhine, to escape the fury of the agents of terror after the repulse of the Austrians. Of this favourable disposition of the council of five hundred towards those who were said to be the victims of terror, others, who had given a more decided proof of hostility, by bearing arms against the republic, it is said, took advantage, though it is probable the numbers of these were greatly magnified in the representations of the directory. These cir-

cumstances, however, were sufficient to enable the executive government to work on the passions of the multitude to the undoing of their opponents.

Under the affectation of alarm, at the measures of the councils, the friends of the directory formed themselves into a club, under the name of the Constitutional Circle, and endeavoured to inspire that confidence in the operation of government which it was represented to be the object of the club of Clichy to thwart or control. Before they had time, however, to take any consistency, or give any effectual support to the measures of government, a law formed on the spur of the occasion, forbidding the assembly of persons for the discussion of political question, adopted in the council of five hundred, and sanctioned by the ancients, broke up their meetings, and dissolved their association.

In the mean while the royalists were probably not inactive; but the newspapers, of this description, it is said, were multiplied with inconceivable rapidity, and the liberty of the press was claimed and enjoyed to its full extent by those who did not conceal their aversion against the constitution, and the spirit of liberty that permitted it. The government had, at various times, sent before the tribunals the authors of those rhapsodies, both of the royalist and terrorist persuasion: but as the views of both were equally hostile to government, the acquitted royalist became even the defender of the imprisoned jacobin, and the tribunals seldom found any thing worthy of punishment in the *intention* of either.

During these contests between the councils and the directory, an event took place which furnished new food for recrimination. Some of the ministers had already been

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subjected to the severe animadversion of the legislative body for malversation in their departments, and there is no doubt but the charges against them were well founded. The minister of finance was accused of having favoured the dilapidations of the commissaries of the treasury, and the minister of the marine of jacobinical incapacity in every part of the administration.

Whether the directory felt the force of those charges, or whether they were willing to wear the appearance of concession to the wishes of the legislative body, they made almost a total renewal of the ministerial corps. Benezech, the minister for home affairs, was replaced by François de Neufchateau, commissary of the executive directory in one of the departments; Charles Lacroix, minister of foreign affairs, by Talleyrand Perigord; Truguet, the minister of marine, by Pleville Pelay; Cochon and Petiet, the ministers of police and war, were dismissed, but their places were not immediately filled like those of the other ex-ministers.

In dismissing the ministers of foreign affairs, and the marine, the directory acted in conformity to the frequently pronounced opinion of the public; but the dismissal of Benezech and Cochon was considered by the anti-directory party as a wanton stretch of power, and became the subject of the most virulent declamation, and the most bitter denunciation, both within and without the walls of the council.

If a regard to the public had hitherto restrained the feelings of the anti-directory party within certain prudent bounds, this event filled up the measure of their resentment, which now discovered itself without disguise. The tribune of the council of five hundred became

little else than an arena for the display of the angry passions of the anti-directory party. A member of the new-third, who had been employed as general in the south of France, particularly distinguished himself by two motions relative to the constitutional ages of general Hoche and Barras; the latter of whom was reported to have accepted the office which he held without the qualification of the forty years prescribed by the law; and the other, who was said to have been named by the directory to the war department, had not yet attained the age of thirty, which is required to be invested with the office of minister. The denunciator, however, was said to have been founded in neither of his inquiries; but the hostile intention was too clear to be misunderstood. The existence of a division in the directory was publicly proclaimed from the tribune; and it was asserted, that Barthelemy and Carnot had entered their protests on the secret registers against the measures which the directory were pursuing.

The animosity between the council and the directory had arisen to a considerable height, when another event took place which carried it to the utmost bound. This was the march of troops towards Paris within the limits which the constitution had pointed out, which was a circle of twelve leagues. The council sent a message to the directory, to inquire by what authority this infraction of the constitution had taken place? The directory, in reply, informed the council, that the troops, which had so much alarmed them, were detachments from the army of the Sambre and Meuse, who were marching for a secret and distant destination, but of whose approach to Paris within the limits

limits appointed by the constitution they were ignorant, and which, if true, could only arise from the ignorance of the subaltern officers. During these altercations, the directory applied again to the council for supplies, by a message in which they represented the great penury of the public treasury, and the extreme distress in every part of the public service, which, without the speediest assistance, would be reduced to the utmost state of disorganisation. This message met with nearly the same reception as the former, the council being too busily employed in endeavouring to correct the gross abuses too evidently committed by the executive power. To this end a law was passed, marking out the precise limits of the constitutional radius around Paris, and ordering pillars to be erected, beyond which no troops were to pass without the permission of the legislative body. As a further security against the meditated attacks of the directory, decrees were likewise passed for the organisation and arming of the national guard of Paris; and the council of the five hundred, for their more immediate security, ordered a considerable augmentation to be made in their own body-guard. In order to curtail the power of the directory in the departments, it was decreed, that the action of the civil power should be suspended in no town without the approbation of the legislative, and that no officer should be dismissed but in consequence of a legal judgment.

This contest between the chief powers of the state had lasted nearly three months, without any appearance or hopes of accommodation. In the mean time, the negotiations that were begun in Italy for a definitive peace seemed to have been

suspended; but those which were opened again at Lisle, between the French republic and the cabinet of St. James, seemed to approach towards a happy accommodation. It was, however, the interest of the Imperial court to wait the event of this conflict in France, and the directory were too deeply engaged in their domestic struggle to take any decisive measures: the negotiators in Italy, therefore, passed their time in mutual compliments and civilities, whilst the emperor was garnishing his newly-conceded states with fresh troops.

The political horizon of Paris was growing every day more dark and portentous. The news of this contest had reached the armies, and had been echoed back in addresses to the directory, promising them support in their conflict with their enemies. On the anniversary of the 14th of July, Buonaparte made a proclamation to his army, in which he informed them, that the country was menaced with new dangers from the enemies of government within; "Let us swear," adds he, "by the manes of those who have fallen by our side in the cause of liberty; let us swear on the colours we have newly gained, implacable war to the enemies of the republic and of the constitution." These addresses from the armies were subjects of fresh alarm; and messages were sent to the directory to inquire into this infringement of the constitution, in permitting the deliberations of an armed body, and in receiving addresses from them. The explanation given by the directory to this message was referred to a commission, as well as the affair of the march of troops towards Paris, which was a subject of unfailling discussion. On this latter point the reporter, Thibaudeau, exculpated the directory from

from any culpable or unconstitutional intention; but at the same time blamed them for permitting or receiving addresses from an armed force. He represented, also, the intentions of the council as being more hostile in appearance than in reality, and offered the means of coming to a speedy and sincere reconciliation.

This reconciliation, however prompted or desired by the moderate party, was become impossible; the contest was drawing near its crisis, and could end only in the overthrow either of the three members of the executive power, Barras, Rewbel, and la Reveillière-Lepaux, or in the defeat of the anti-directorial party in the council. The directory had hitherto stood on the defensive; denying or excusing according to the nature of the charges; but were preparing the most audacious violation of the constitution that ever was attempted by any administration. On the introduction, therefore, of the Cisalpine ambassador, and general Bernadotte, with the remainder of the colours taken from the Austrians and Venetians, they published a manifesto against their opponents, in terms of menace and contempt. In this discourse, delivered as an answer to the addresses of the ambassador and the general, the president of the directory observed, that "the eternal enemies of French liberty were redoubling in vain their exertions to overturn it; that in order to second their efforts, cowardly deserters of the republican cause, alluding to the opponents of the directory in the council, had, by a disgraceful compact, sold their honour and their country to foreign powers, and to the Bourbon race. He represented them as labouring to introduce civil war, and re-establish the monarchy

on the bleeding wrecks of the republic; that, to effect their purpose, they endeavoured to weaken the nerve of the executive power in order to demonstrate the incompatibility of a republican government, with a system capable of maintaining peace and public order, and also to find the easier means of attaining the end which they had in view; and, that to aid these designs, they had called in bands of fanatics and royalists, at a moment when the safety of the state required that the laws should be put in severest force against them." The president assured the general, whom he was addressing, "that the attempts of their enemies would be vain; that the works of darkness of those men, who were continually invoking the constitution whilst they violated it without shame, would never be consummated; and that they would, on the contrary, fall back on the heads of their authors." He added, that the directory would make no compromise with those enemies of the republic; would suffer themselves to be neither seduced or affrighted; that they would acknowledge no authorities but such as the constitution traced out; that every authority was unlawful that raised itself above the constitution, which was the general and equal regulator of the state; and that neither the number nor the species of their enemies should cause in them any dismay."

This speech of the directory was understood by the councils as a public declaration of hostilities; and preparations were accordingly made for the event. As it was a dispute that was to be decided by other weapons than arguments, both sides had made the necessary preparations. The addresses of the army to the directory had been counter-balanced by addresses from various admini-

administrations of departments, conveying their disapprobation; and so far as the constitution was to be regarded under such circumstances, these addresses from the army were not in conformity to the law. The constitutional radius, lately established, prevented the arrival of more troops than were sufficient for the service of Paris, the number of which was well known, and the guard of the directory was very inferior to that of the councils. The anti-directorial party, presuming on the aid of the citizens of Paris, were they to regain possession of their arms, of which they were deprived after the events of the 13th of Vendémiaire, had decreed the re-organisation of the national guard; but the Parisians having had woeful experience of the danger of mingling in those affairs, the law was regarded with the most perfect indifference.

It was not, however, on these uncertain and precarious aids, that their hopes of success were founded. As the government, in the contest of the 13th Vendémiaire, had made use of terrorists, said to have been taken from the prisons, where they had been condemned to punishment for their revolutionary offences, in order to oppose the citizens who were in the act of resisting conventional despotism, so they conceived it was equally lawful for them to make use of similar means, in order to abolish the directorial tyranny. These means had been long preparing to their hands. The advocates of the directory alleged, that "crowds of emigrants filled Paris from every quarter: officers from the prince of Condé's army appeared in the public walks, and mingled in societies, where their character was known: multitudes appeared in the streets with black collars and

cuffs, the insignia of the Vendée uniform: the idea of a republic, in fashionable circles, was a hereby not to be tolerated; and every external sign indicated something like a revolution in the public mind at Paris. These emigrants, having their different connexions in that city who were of sentiments not very dissimilar to their own, had convinced them of the facility of bringing about a counter-revolution; and not being deficient in tactics, had organised a body sufficient to overcome any military force which the directory had to oppose, and to effect, so far as Paris was concerned, the purposes they had in contemplation."

That there may be some foundation for a part of these assertions is possible; that, induced by a prospect of more humane and moderate councils, some emigrants might have returned is probable; and that some hot-headed royalists might even flatter themselves with a restoration of the old regimen may also be credited; but they certainly had no connexion with the majority of the councils. The designs of the emigrants, and their friends, the resident-royalists, were certainly, as far as they went, a total subversion of the constitution and the republic: the project of the greater number of the party in the council went certainly no further than effecting a change in the directory, without changing the form of the republic; whilst a very few of the council might possibly be in league with the royalist party, and enter into the full extent of their views.

Although this party might join with the majority in the councils in pursuit of their system, the members who composed that majority were very far from entering into their views. When one of the majority

majority in the five hundred published a pamphlet addressed to his constituents, declaring that they were betrayed, and in the council of the ancients a member exclaimed from the tribune, that the counter-revolution was in the council of five hundred, the councils, though pressed to notice the expressions, passed to the order of the day, as if convinced that the assertions were ill founded.

Though the views of the council, however, were probably directed only to the reform of what they deemed abuses in the constitution, they considered it as absolutely necessary to remove the corrupt majority of the members of the directory; and these designs were not coloured nor concealed. During the last days of the month of Thermidor, and the beginning of the following month, daily reports were spread of attacks that were to be made, or, in the gentle language of the Parisians, accustomed to revolutions, that *mouvements* were to take place. That these movements on the side of the anti-directorials did not take place has been attributed to the indecision and division amongst their members; and that the directory should have so long retarded its operations against the party, knowing the extent of their hostility, has been ascribed to their forbearance, and wish to try every other mode rather than that of force. But the directory in reality were in no danger from these hostile projects of the councils, since they were acquainted with the plan of their intended operations, and held, as it were, the command of the military force of the party in their hand, as well as the deliberations of their committees. Whilst, therefore, by secret springs, the directory found the means

of guiding this machine, there was no danger in delaying to crush it till their own plan of re-action was matured, and till they had arranged the system of future government, after disposing of their vanquished opponents. The friends of the directory were advised of the step which they meant to take a day or two previous to the 18th of Fructidor (4th of September); but the secret was not so well kept, but that certain members of the anti-directorial party were informed in good time; and not having full reliance on the courage or conduct of their own party, had withdrawn themselves from the contest.

On the night of the 17th of Fructidor (3d of September), the guard of the directory, and the garrison of Paris, had been reinforced by bodies of troops, which made the military force on the side of the directory amount to near 10,000 men. The ministers had assembled at the Luxembourg, during the evening, to receive their instructions. Barthelemy, who refused to join in the deliberations, was put under arrest in his own apartments. Carnot, who better understood the nature of revolutionary measures, had made his escape.

Before day-break, a division of this army had taken possession of the quays, bridges, principal streets, and every avenue, or post of consequence; another division was ordered to surround the Thuilleries, and the five hundred, where the inspectors of the hall, who were among the chiefs of the anti-directorial party, were then assembled in deliberation. The division, which was ordered on this service, advanced to execute it on the side of the Champs-Élysées. General Augereau, in the name of the directory, summoned the commander of the

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the post to open the iron gates of the Thuilleries. Five minutes were granted to him whilst he sent for orders: at the expiration of this time he was informed, that the gates, if not opened, should be broken down by the artillery. The grenadiers, hearing this menace, prevented its execution, by opening the passage, and leaving the garden free for the entry of the assailants. Some little show of resistance was made; but Augereau advancing to Ramel, who commanded the body-guard of the councils, and who had blamed the cowardly conduct of his soldiers, treated him with indignity, and put him under arrest. A detachment was sent to the hall, to put the members, whom they found, under arrest; in which number were the generals Pichegru and Willot, who were sent, with eleven others, to the Temple.

The whole of this business was finished before the people of Paris had risen from their beds. They were but little surprised at seeing themselves, as it were, in the midst of a camp: but the only astonishment that it excited was the tranquillity with which this event had passed.

The decisive conduct of the directory, who were more atrocious and more accustomed to the horrors of the revolution than their opponents, had determined the contest. There was no appearance of resistance in any quarter of the town; and the apprehension of the return of the bloody struggle of Vendemiaire, which was ever before the eyes of the Parisians, gave way to other sentiments; when they were informed, by numerous placards, stuck profusely on the walls in every street, that a vast royalist conspiracy had been discovered

and defeated. The deputies, who were for the most part ignorant of the events that had taken place during the night, assembled early at the usual place of their meetings to take cognisance of what had passed; but they found the seals put on the doors of the hall of the ancients; and to those who were assembled at the five hundred, an arrêté of the directory was presented, stating that the general Augereau was empowered to put the seals on the doors of the two councils; that the representatives were invited to assemble in the hall belonging to the surgeons, and the theatre of the Odeon, which were prepared for their reception.

Of the deputies who were present, and of those that came successively to the usual places of meeting, some went to the new places indicated in the arrêté, and others, either returned home to wait the event, or to find out their colleagues, to deliberate by which mode they should regulate their conduct in the present conjuncture. By the hour of noon, the ancients had assembled to the number of forty, and the five hundred to about eighty. By this time they were fully informed of the events that had taken place, and knew also that their colleagues were, for the most part, assembled at the Odeon, and its neighbourhood. Unwilling to sanction this act of the directory, which they judged illegal, they went, with their presidents at their head, to their accustomed place of meeting, and summoned the officer at the post to withdraw his guard and open the doors of their halls. On the refusal of the officer, the deputies withdrew; some of them went to join the majority; and others, who refused to submit to the invitation of the directory, assembled at the
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houses of two of their colleagues, to protest against the measures of government. Those of the five hundred were framing this protest, when they were informed, that the president of the ancients, with all who were assembled at his house, were arrested, and sent to the Temple; on which they withdrew any further opposition, and the Odeon, and the chirurgical-hall, became the seats of the different branches of the legislature.

The history of this atrocious act, detailed in the way most favourable to the victors, was communicated to the people as has been already observed, by notices stuck on the walls, accompanied by an *arrêté* of the directory, which inflicted the pain of death on any who should propose the restitution of royalty, or of the constitution of 1793, or the placing the family of Orleans on the throne. By the same decree, the administrations of the department of the Seine, and of the municipality of Paris, were likewise temporarily suspended.

The proclamation which announced the transaction was supported by such pretended justificatory proofs as the directory had time to forge and prepare for the occasion. The principal piece was, a paper pretended to be written by M. D'Antraigues, and found at Venice in his *porte-feuille*. This paper, the genuineness of which was attested by the generals Buonaparte, Clark, and Berthier, contained minutes of a conversation held at Venice by this agent of Louis XVIII. with the count De Montgaillard, another agent of the coalition, in which the fabricated history of general Pichegru's connexion with the agents of the prince of Condé is detailed. In this paper it is asserted, "that find-

ing Pichegru disposed to listen to propositions, the count, in the name of Louis XVIII. and the prince of Condé, offered him the place of marshal of France, the red ribband, the government of Alsace, lands, pensions, and privileges in great profusion. The services required in return were the delivery of the fortress of Huningue, and his union with the prince of Condé's army to march to Paris. Pichegru, not trusting to the promises of Montgaillard, required more authentic evidence of the prince's intentions, which were procured with some difficulty, by the count, from the prince, who confirmed what Montgaillard had written. The messenger and agent of the count to Pichegru, who was an inhabitant of Neuchâtel, named Fauche-Borel, after presenting Condé's letter, and receiving Pichegru's acknowledgment, explained the conditions required by the prince, namely, the delivery of Huningue, and the march to Paris, with which Pichegru refused to comply; stating, that unwilling to make the third volume of Lafayette and Dumouriez he would do nothing rashly or incomplete. He observed to the agent, that his means were great and sure; that they had their roots not only in his army, but at Paris, in the convention, in the departments, in the armies of the generals, his colleagues, who thought like himself, that the present system must finish; that France could not exist as a republic; that there must be a king; and that king, Louis XVIII.

"To effect with security this measure, he observed, that the prince's plan was altogether ineffective; that the prince would be driven from Huningue in five days;

days; and he, Pichegru, would be ruined in a fortnight. The plan which Pichegru proposed in return was, to cross the Rhine on some day which should be indicated, after filling the strong places with his confidential officers; to proclaim the king, and hoist the white standard; to unite his army with those of Wurmsler and Condé; to repass the Rhine, and, putting the strong places kept by his troops into the hands of the Imperialists, march on to Paris with the united armies, where he should be in fourteen days."

This plan, it appears from D'Antraigne's minutes, was not resisted by M. de Condé; whose stupidity, and ridiculous pride, are portrayed with great indignation by the writer; who, approving of Pichegru's propositions, as leading to success nearly infallible, represents the prince of Condé as rejecting them, because, secure of the counter-revolution by other means, he would not share with the Austrian general, to whom the plan must necessarily be communicated, the glory of effecting it.

The other papers were letters of the prince de Condé to Imbert Colomés, at Lyons, represented as a principal agent of the pretender, and who was then a deputy of the five hundred, and various pieces of *Duverne des Presses*, the contents of which have already been stated. The authenticity of some of those pieces, it must be observed, has been doubted upon, apparently, the best grounds. The parties concerned all declared, solemnly, that the whole was a forgery, and only a stratagem of the directory to excuse their usurpations. To confirm this opinion, D'Antraignes, and Fauche-Borel, published each a denial of

the parts which are allotted to them in this conspiracy, the one as the agent, and the other as the writer of the piece that was published. To counteract the effects of this denial, it was asserted by the directory that a secret correspondence had been seized by general Moreau, at Offenbourg, on his last passage across the Rhine. This correspondence, said to be found amongst the baggage of general Klinglen, was transmitted by Moreau to the director Barthelemy, with a letter importing their contents, which reached Paris three days after the events of the eighteenth of Fructidor. These papers, which occupy about seventy printed sheets, preceded by a letter from Moreau to the minister of police, giving a history of the capture, and accounting for the delay in transmitting it, by the time taken to decypher and arrange the correspondence which he had to offer as proofs in his accusation of Pichegru as a traitor, proclaimed in his letter to Barthelemy. This immense correspondence, in which Pichegru, Wurmsler, Klinglen, the prince of Condé, Mr. Wickham, the english envoy, Witterisbach, and Fauche-Borel, form the principal personages, would indeed be legal evidence against the general, could we attribute any degree of authenticity to it; but though the matter remains yet unexplained, we cannot but suspect the whole to be a fabrication.

The remnants of the councils in this complete state of degradation, having assembled each in the places allotted for them (to keep up the farce of legislation, when the constitution was no more), sent a message to inform the directory that they were installed, and to demand an account of the situation

of the republic, and of the events which had occasioned the extraordinary measures which had been taken. To this requisition the directory replied, by sending to the council various papers, among which were those that had already been published. They observed, "that the measures which had been taken were enjoined by strong necessity; that further delay would have delivered the republic into the hands of its enemies; and after a short detail of the means by which this subversion was to have been operated, concluded by *congratulating the councils on their escape*, and asserting, that, in matters of state, extreme measures are to be appreciated only by circumstances."

A commission having been formed, consisting of five members, to consider of the measures which ought to be taken in the present crisis, presented a report, in which they sanctioned the conduct of the directory, and pointed out the means which were necessary to ensure the continuance of the public tranquillity, and the existence of the republic. They then pretended to draw a parallel between the prosperous situation of the republic, previous to the last elections, and the dangers with which it was then surrounded.

"This state," the reporter observed, "was the consequence of the vast conspiracy, the object of which was the destruction of liberty, and the re-establishment of the ancient order of things. This conspiracy," he asserted, "had its seat in the legislative body; but that the number of these conspirators was not great, though their influence was extensive. One of the measures of this party, and which they succeeded in carrying into execution, he said, was to deprive the execu-

tive power of the moral and constitutional means of carrying on its functions; to arraign every part of its conduct; and, by degrees, deprive it of each of its prerogatives, and thus bring it to dissolution. It was this last crisis which the *wisdom and activity* of the directory had averted." As such was the position of things, the committee suggested that great and vigorous measures should be taken. "The members of the council ought," it was observed, "to consider themselves as on the field of battle, where the contending powers were the friends and enemies of liberty and the republic; that having struck the first stroke, no time was to be lost in securing the victory, which was to be done by disarming the enemy, and sending them away forever from a republic which was the object of their detestation, and which they were leagued to destroy." This abject commission, after declaring its abhorrence of sanguinary measures, and at the same time under the necessity of taking such steps as should not commit the safety of the state, proposed to the council the punishment of exile for such as they should deem objects of the public vengeance, as agents or accomplices in the present conspiracy; which measure should be also extended to the emigrants who had re-entered, and to the priests who refused submission to the laws of the republic.

After reading the report of the committee, a series of propositions were affected to be submitted to the *discussion* of the council founded on the report. These propositions were adopted, after a few amendments, which consisted chiefly of exceptions made to the article which contained the names of those who were condemned to banishment.

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names* of those who were to be transported, to the number of sixty-five; of whom fifty-three were members of the two councils; and the two directors, Barthelémy and Carnot: the place of their exile was to be determined by the directory, and their property to be sequestered till authentic proof was received of their arrival at the place of banishment. It was further enacted, that the emigrants who had entered the republic to solicit their erasure from the list, and who were not definitively struck off, should leave the republic in a limited time; that those who were detained in prison, and who had forfeited their lives, should be banished; that the law lately made to recall the banished priests was repealed; that the directory was invested with the power of sending away, by decree individually no-

tified, such priests as disturbed the public peace; and that the oath to be taken in future should be that of hatred to royalty and anarchy, and of attachment to the republic and the present constitution. Punishments were likewise decreed against any of the constituted authorities which should not punctually execute the laws in this respect. Various new regulations were made in the administration of justice. The remainder of the family of Bourbon were expelled, and their estates confiscated; the directory being charged to designate the place of their banishment, and allow them a revenue out of their estates. To evince the further regard for liberty in these despicable tyrants, the *newspapers and other periodical publications* were placed under the *inspection of the police* for the term of a year. The law

* DU CONSEIL DES CENS-CENT.

Alex	Duclanier	Noddes
J. L. André dit Job André	Dumas	André (de la Lozère)
Bavard	Gibert Desmollières	Mac-Curtain
Blain (des Bouches du	Henri-Lavigne	Rasle
Rhône)	Imbert Coquerot	Pachet
Bouly d'Angles	Caillaud Jordan	Polegna
Borne	Jourdan (André Joseph,	Pollart
Bourdon (de l'Oise)	Bouches du Rhone)	Fratre Montaud
Cadroi	Gai	Quatremere Quincy
Couchet	Lacouriere	Saladin
Delahaye (de la Seine In-	Lemarchand Gonicourt	Simcon
fer.)	Lemerer	Vauvilliers
Delarue	Merlan	Vienot Vanblanc
Doumerc	Madier	Villaret Joyeuse
Dumolard	Marlard	Willot.

DU CONSEIL DES ANCIENS.

Barbé Marbois	Laumont	Portalis
Dumas	Muraire	Revere
Ferant Vaillant	Murinais	Trenson Ducoudray.
Lafon Ladebat	Paradis	

Carnot, directeur
 Barthelémy, directeur
 Brotier, ex-abbé
 Lavilleumois, ex-magistrat
 Deverne Durratle, dit Dunan
 Cochon, ex-ministre de la police
 Doffonville, ex-employé à la police

Miranda, general
 Morgan, general
 Suard, journaliste
 Maine, ex-conventionnel
 Ramel, commandant des grenadiers du corps législatif.

against popular societies was repealed, as well as those respecting the organisation of the national guard, and the prohibition which had been laid on the directory of suspending the civil authority, or putting a commune in a state of siege.

These propositions being sent to the council of the ancients, a discussion ensued respecting certain clauses, and chiefly on that article which contained the list of persons designated by the five hundred to banishment. The directory perceiving this hesitation, sent a message, or more properly, in the present state of things, an order to the council of five hundred, representing the *danger of delay*, and exhorting them to imitate the conduct which they had observed; to let no metaphysical discussion respecting principles interrupt the speedy course of national *justice*; that being placed in the most singular of positions, they could not apply the ordinary rules of the constitution, unless they wished to deliver up the republic to its enemies. "If the friends of kings find friends amongst you, if slaves can meet protectors, if you delay an instant, despair of the salvation of France, shut up the book of the constitution, and tell the patriots

that the knell of the republic has tolled." This message was immediately sent by the five hundred to the ancients, and the propositions passed into a law without further opposition.

Supposing the assertions of the directory to have been (what they were not) proved, still, if they had had any regard to that *justice* which was upon their lips, but not in their conduct, surely some greater discrimination ought to have been made in the fate of those who were marked out as objects of punishment. Had the council of elders not been degraded to the lowest pitch, more proof would have been required than the mere list of names, which the council of five hundred sent up, to convince them that Tronçon-Ducoudray, Simeon, and Portalis, were implicated in the same crimes with Brothier, Duverne des Presles, and Lavillehurnois, the avowed agents of Louis; or that Barthelemy the director, and Cochon the ex-minister of police, ought to share the punishment of Rovere and Miranda; the one the chief actor in the murders of Avignon, and the other an indefatigable but imprudent instrument in the conspiracies of every party.

C H A P. XII.

Messages of the Directory on the Mode of raising Supplies, and on the filling up the Vacancies in the Directory. Banishment of the Journalists. Nomination to the Directory. Disorders in the South. Recall of the French Negotiators at Lisle. Mission of others. Departure of Lord Malmesbury. Ab-surd Account of Lord Malmesbury's Mission published in the Official Papers of the French Government. Reflections on the forged Letter. Final Close of the Negotiation between the French Republic and England. Negotiation with the Emperor for definitive Treaty. Supposed Causes of the Delay in the Negotiations during the Summer. Treaty of Peace concluded at Campo-Formio. Principal Conditions of the Treaty. Pacification with the Empire—referred to a Congress. Surrender of Venice to the Emperor.

Emperor. Despair of the Venetian Patriots. Portugal. Treaty of Peace negotiated by Portugal with France during the Summer—dissolved. Imprisonment of the Portuguese Ambassador. Ambiguity of the Conduct of the Spanish Court. Disaffection and Inefficacy of the Allies of the French Republic. Affairs of Holland. Treaty of Alliance, offensive and defensive, with the King of Sardinia. Reflections on Clauses in the late Treaties. Proclamations of the Directory against the English Government. Review made by the French Government of the Conduct of the Neutral Powers during the War. Of Switzerland. Decree of the Directory demanding the Expulsion of the English Ambassador to the Helvetic Confederacy. Departure of the English Ambassador. Object of his Mission at Berne said to be discovered in Pichegru's Correspondence. Deputies from the Senate of Berne to Paris ordered to leave the Republic. Deputies from the United States of America. Reflections on the Conduct of the American Government. Contemptuous Sentiments of the French Government towards the new President of the United States. Probable Failure of the pending Negotiation. Vote of Supplies for the ensuing Year. Report on further restraining Laws respecting the former Nobles. Propositions of the Committee—rejected with Indignation. State of the Church. Meeting of a National Ecclesiastical Council. Retrospect of Ecclesiastical Affairs during the last Year. Theophilanthropism. Report on the present State of the Catholic Religion in France—In Corsica—In the French West India Islands. Religious State of the freed Negroes—Negro General, Toussaint l'Ouverture—In the French Colonies in South America—In the Mauritius—In the East Indies—In the Levant—At Constantinople. Sentiments of the Fathers of the Gallican Church, with respect to the Papal See. Support of the Papal See by Protestant Establishments. Probable Causes of this Support. The Sects in Germany. Dispositions of some Lutherans to enter the Bosom of the Catholic Church. State of Popery in other Parts of the World. Reflections of the Bishop of Blois on the approaching Regeneration of Mankind. Proceedings of the Council. Plan and Conditions of the religious Pacification. Reflections on the Articles enjoined by the Council. Civil State of the Colonies in the West Indies. Views of the French Government on the Colonisation of the Coasts of Africa. Meeting of the Congress at Radstadt. Affairs of the Cisalpine Republic. Letters of Buonaparte to the Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics. Departure of Buonaparte from Italy. Opening of the Cisalpine Legislature. Reflections on the State of Italy. Provisional Formation of Ancona into a Republic. Journey of Buonaparte through Switzerland and Radstadt to Paris. Sketch of his Victories. Presentation of the Ratification of the Treaty by the Emperor to the Directory.

THE directory after having, with the aid of the councils, thus disposed of its enemies, sent a message to solicit the legislature to remedy the evils which they pretended had taken place during the time of the ascendancy of the popular party in the government; but which, in reality, had resulted

from their own profligacy, prodigality, and mismanagement. The evil which required the speediest remedy was the state of finance.

The specific remedies which the directory proposed were the immediate regulation and provision for the expenses of the ensuing year; an augmentation of taxes on

collateral successions; forming the post, and suppressing franking; re-establishing the national lottery; erecting turnpikes; a further duty on stamps; a duty on paper; but chiefly the mobilisation of the national debt; reducing the real stock to one-third, payable in money, and the other two-thirds in *bons*, to be taken in payment for national lands.

Leaving these propositions to the reflection of the councils, the directory sent another message, to engage them to fill up the vacancies which existed in their department by the exclusion of Carnot and Barthelemy. During their deliberation in the choice of individuals, the councils employed themselves in scrutinising the political morality of a class of citizens, whose influence in spreading the principles of the counter-revolution had been active and extensive. These were the editors of newspapers. Sixty-seven of these journalists were presented by the commission, instituted for that purpose, as worthy of the animadversion of the legislature. Of these, two were, on the plea of intention, excused; twenty-three were referred to the committee for further examination; and the remainder were ordered to be banished from the republic to whatever place should be pointed out by the directory, under nearly the same regulations as the late members of the councils. As a further measure to secure the power of the usurpers, the exclusion of ex-nobles from places of public trust and employment was proposed; but the measure being judged more revolutionary than the circumstances of the time required, the motion was sent to a commission, to undergo mature consideration, and to discover if the project were useful.

The vacant places in the directory were filled up by Merlin, the minister of justice, and Francis de Neufchateau, the minister for home affairs. The former occupied the place of Barthelemy, who was elected for the space of five years; the other replaced Carnot, whose office, according to the constitution, was to be determined by lot. The places of the new directors in the ministry were filled up by two citizens but little known; one of whom was Letourneur, ex-commissary of the directory at Nantes, who was named minister for home affairs; and the other by Lambrechts, the commissary at Brussels, who was appointed minister of justice. The vacancies made in the councils by banishment; and the exclusion of the greater number of the newly elected third, were left open to the elections which, according to the constitution, were to take place in the ensuing month of Germinal.

The southern departments of the republic partook of the convulsion of Paris at the same period, but in an opposite manner. Lyons and Montauban had long been marked for their affection to royalty, or perhaps for their opposition to tyranny under the name of republicanism. The success of the anti-directorial party, in the councils, had invigorated their hopes; and it was asserted that serious preparations had been made for the restoration of the ancient order of things; preparations that were probably directed by individuals of that party, but with which there is no evidence that the majority of the proscribed members were even acquainted.

One of the first operations of the new directory was the recall of the French commissaries, Letourneur, Marc, and Pelet-Pleville, from
Lille,

Lisle, where they had been treating, during three months, with the negotiator for the English court, lord Malmesbury. These men were replaced by Treilhard and Bonnier (11th September), who were instructed to demand categorically, whether the English negotiator were invested with sufficient powers to restore to the French republic, and its allies, all the possessions which, from the beginning of the war, had fallen into the hands of the English? and that, if he were not invested with such powers, he should leave the place of negotiation in twenty-four hours. The answer given by lord Malmesbury was followed by his leaving Lisle, agreeably to the orders of the directory. The French plenipotentiaries, previous to his departure, informed him, that they had received orders to remain at Lisle till the 25th Vendemiaire (16th October), to await his return with more ample instructions. Such was the first proof which the usurpers gave of their abilities as statesmen. They had it, at this moment, in their power to establish their republic, in the very zenith of its power, in peace with all the world; but, by this rash step, they laid the foundation of all the disasters which France has incurred, and is likely to incur till the ancient despotism shall be re-established by a foreign force.

During the last negotiation at Paris, the directory had published the correspondence at the moment it took place. In the present negotiation they had been more reserved; and, as if the whole had been considered by them as a stratagem of the English government to take advantage only of the disturbed situation of the republic, and furnish a pretext for waiting

the chance of events, a letter was published in the official papers of the directory, and understood to proceed from an high authority, which pretended to unveil the motives of the negotiator; but which, in fact, was a most lame apology for the misconduct and folly of the Gallic directory.

This letter (written by M. Talleyrand, the minister of foreign affairs) is entitled, "A Letter from Lord Malmesbury to Lord ———, forgotten at Lisle." In the letter, lord Malmesbury gives a picture of the favourable situation of France; of the ascendancy of the counter-revolutionary party; of the influence of priests, royalists, emigrants, newspaper-writers, and the anti-directorial party in the two councils; stating, that, under such circumstances, when the republic had scarcely a month to exist, a treaty for peace would have been unpardonable, had his powers been ever so unlimited. The writer of this letter, after amusing himself by detailing the mode in which lord Malmesbury is supposed to have acted in order to gain time; such as dwelling on the preliminaries, the considerations, and the projects of the treaty; with immense hiatus for the cessions that were to be made to England by France, and its allies, which were to be the subjects of endless debates; represents lord Malmesbury as agreeing to the propositions of the *status ante bellum*, with the reserve only of keeping such and such possessions, which are found to be nearly the whole which England had obtained during the war.

This mode of giving information to the public was justly considered as insulting and contemptuous, both towards the principals and agents in the English negotia-

tion, and was in fact an affront on the people of France. In the mean while lord Malmesbury published his history of the affair, by giving such extracts of the letters that passed during the negotiation as served to prove the moderation of the British cabinet, and showed its earnestness for peace.

The newly appointed negotiators remained the limited time at Lisle, under pretence of waiting the return of lord Malmesbury, which they might have been at first assured would not take place; and of which they were afterwards informed by a letter from his lordship from London, stating, that he had communicated their note to the British minister, and was ordered to acquaint them that his leaving Lisle was in consequence of the positive orders of the directory; that his powers were neither illusive, nor limited; that nothing had been omitted on his part to accelerate the negotiation; and that its suspension was the act of the directory alone. With respect to the mode of resuming the negotiation, his lordship observed, that his answer had already been made; but that in any case no further intercourse could take place till the directory had given some assurance that the persons of future negotiators would be secure of the respect observed among *civilised* nations.

The negotiations with the emperor were apparently attended with better success. The negotiation had dragged on for several months at Udine, and numerous civilities had passed between the French and Austrian generals; the emperor's troops took quiet possession of Istria and Venetian Dalmatia. At length the emperor finding himself not in a state to renew hostilities, or satisfied with the concessions of the

French, formally acceded to the desired pacification. This event took place at the village of Campo Formio, near Udine, the 17th of October. By this treaty the emperor ceded to the French his former possessions in the Low Countries, and confirmed to them the possession of the islands in the Levant, which belonged at that time to the Venetians, such as Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Cerigo, and the islands adjacent. The emperor likewise ceded the whole of his dominions in Italy, and acknowledged the Cisalpine republic, confirming the possession of the additional territory lately belonging to the pope, and which now formed part of that republic. For these important cessions the French republic consented to yield to the emperor Venice, and the whole of the Venetian territory, excepting the islands above mentioned, passing in a line from the Tirol, through the lake of Guarda, along the Adige to the Po. As this treaty was concluded by the emperor, only as king of Hungary and Bohemia, the pacification of the empire with the French republic was referred to a congress, to be held at Radstat, composed only of plenipotentiaries from those respective powers.

Of this treaty, the ecclesiastical princes on the left of the Rhine, and Venice, were made the sacrifices. The right of the French to dispose thus of the Venetian territory has been justly the subject of serious animadversion. Not only had the people of those states indulged the idea that they had exchanged their oligarchical regimen for the blessings of a free government, but they had named in almost every commune provisionary authorities, and taken every previous step for the formation of a republic founded

founded on equal rights. This idea was confirmed by the conduct of the French government, which, though it did not formally recognise any of these democratic authorities, appeared at least to yield its tacit approbation to the dispositions which gave them birth. It was therefore with bursts of indignation and despair that the partisans of liberty heard of that article of the treaty which consigned them to a more severe despotism than that from which they had hoped to have escaped for ever; and, in the first transports of their rage at seeing these hopes blasted, resistance against the double tyranny that betrayed and enchained them was proclaimed as a sacred duty.

It is said, on good authority, that Buonaparte yielded with reluctance to this sacrifice; but the directory, to whose mean policy he had sacrificed his laurels, showed themselves as little mindful of the liberty of others as of that of their own people.

The British government was now the only efficient member that remained of the famous coalition, composed of almost the whole of the powers of Europe. The influence of the cabinet of St. James's, however, was sufficiently strong to keep Portugal within the limits of the coalition treaty. An ambassador from this government had been employed in Paris during the summer, in negotiating a separate peace; and had actually concluded a treaty on the 10th of August, which was to be ratified in two months; one of the articles of which was an obligation on Her Most Faithful Majesty not to admit more than six armed vessels at one time into her ports. This treaty not being ratified within the time prescribed, the directory, by a declaration, the preamble of which stated,

"that instead of observing the above-mentioned article, the queen of Portugal had put the forts and principal ports into the possession of the English," declared it null and void, and ordered the ambassador M. D'Aranjo to quit the republic. The ambassador did not follow this injunction; but having become the dupe of some diplomatic intriguers, through whose pretended influence with the French government he had been flattered with the hopes of renewing the negotiation, was sent as a state prisoner to the prison of the Temple; and thus the directory gave a proof that they were as little attentive to the law of nations, as to those which their own convention had instituted.

Against this power the French government had presumed, that Spain, the ally of the republic, would have employed its unoccupied forces; and the invasion of Portugal was long publicly discussed as an event near at hand. But it cannot appear strange to those who reflect on the nature of the alliance between Spain and France, and on the event of the naval combat with the English off Cape St. Vincent, that mutual court civilities between Spain and Portugal should supersede all ideas of war and hostile invasion. Of the efficacy of such an ally of the French republic, Portugal formed, no doubt, a just estimation. At the time of the signature of the treaty at Paris, the harbour of Cadiz was blocked up by an inferior force, and the town itself bombarded. It is true that but little damage was done by this act of hostility; but as an act of suffering it was thought sufficient evidence from the Spanish court of its fidelity to the alliance; and Portugal, independent of more weighty considerations, returned to
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its duty, finding that little more was to be feared from its vicinity to a power, that, so far from throwing hostile dispositions, seemed reluctant to act even on the defensive.

It was indeed hitherto the fate of the French republic, from whatever cause it proceeded, to find its allies not only ineffective in every point where their aid was required, but always unfortunate enough to afford essential aid and succour to the common enemy. Spain, instead of invading Portugal, had swelled the naval list of the enemy. Holland, after having herself successively stripped of her richest possessions in the Indies, increased also, at this period (October), the triumph and force of the British at home, by the loss of the greater part of her fleet. No examination has taken place into the conduct of the officers who commanded this expedition, although the circumstances were such as demanded the most speedy and thorough investigation. That the victory should have remained on the side of the English, with even an inferiority of number, excites no surprise to those who are acquainted with the valour and dexterity of British seamen; but when the only injury which could be done to the British fleet in this quarter was the keeping them exposed to the accidents of the seas, while the Dutch navy rode safe in harbour, the order given by the committee of government for sailing, contrary to the advice of the admiral, who foresaw and warned them of the danger, appears to have been an act of unwarrantable presumption and folly, if it be attributed to no cause more culpable.

While the affairs of Holland are thus, connectedly with our observations on the allies of France,

brought under our consideration, it may not be improper to give a short view of her political situation at this period. After a considerable time spent in forming such a union as should conciliate the interests of each contending party in Holland, the constitution presented to the people, during the summer, as the result of the labours of the convention, was rejected, almost unanimously, notwithstanding the exhortations of the French minister, who speaking the language of the directory, was anxious to see the government of Holland settled on some certain basis. By some it was disapproved, for reasons which to them would have rendered any constitution, built on the principles of liberty, obnoxious; but the vast majority, the multitude, threw it aside; some on the ground, that no other change was made than a transfer of a division of the power of the late stadtholder among patrician chiefs, who, by intrigue or corruption, would be always careful to hold the reins of power, though under the form of a popular election; while others objected to the principle of federalism, on which the constitution rested; whereby the late provinces continued to have their distinctive interests, instead of becoming amalgamated into one equally represented republic. The constitution being rejected, and the convention dissolved, a legislative assembly was chosen, composed, indeed, of less obnoxious members than the former, but still containing that leaven, which, in the end, so fermented the mass, as to produce one of those explosions not uncommon in the infancy of popular governments.

The French republic, at this period, concluded a treaty with another

their ex-member of the coalition, the king of Sardinia, by forming an alliance, offensive and defensive; the base of which was, the furnishing 9,000 troops and ten pieces of cannon, in exchange for the protection of the republic. The price of protection was but little. There was another condition of the treaty far more singular. The king of Sardinia had just quelled a popular insurrection of a most dangerous nature in his states, an insurrection founded on the pretext of the rights of man: the insurgents had been defeated, and severely punished; but as power might not always have the same good fortune, the guarantee of the *status quo* with respect to the Piedmontese government was required from the French. It is also remarkable, that one of the articles of peace with another ex-member of the coalition, the emperor, bound the republic to guarantee the internal tranquillity of the Austrian dominions! Whether it be more extraordinary, in these august monarchs, to have enjoined the French, by treaty, to protect their own states against the progress of republican principles, or in these republicans to have had the complaisance to consent to this singular engagement, it is perhaps difficult to decide.

The peace with the emperor was followed by an *arrêté* of the directory, of a very different tendency, with regard to England. In a short proclamation, addressed to the armies, the directory observed, "that although so much had been done, so many kings conquered, so many people set free, and the republic itself established by the valour of its arms, yet the country expected still one more sacrifice; since the enemy who had been the

original cause of all the horrors and miseries which they had suffered, both from foreign and civil war, remained yet to be crushed; and that the safety of the republic was endangered whilst the English government remained." This strange preamble was followed by two resolutions, stating that an army should be assembled on the coasts of the channel, under the name of the *Army of England*; and that Buonaparte should be appointed commander in chief.

The manifesto issued by the English court on the rupture of the negotiations at Lisle was answered by another proclamation (20th of November), of the same tendency with the former, containing also strictures on the speech from the throne on the opening of the session of parliament. The mode of answering this manifesto of the English cabinet was the subject of long deliberation with the directory. The manifesto itself contained grave and serious matter; and as the last appeal of the English government to the nation, and to all Europe, of the justice of the cause in which it was engaged, and which was now to be decided only by the fortune of arms, was worthy of a serious reply. An answer, it was reported, had been prepared by a person high in office, in which the assertions contained in the manifesto were brought forward and examined. But the directory, either aware of the weakness of its cause, or elated by that insufferable vanity which has ruined their country, and affecting to think that all further discussion was beneath the dignity of the republic, satisfied themselves with issuing another proclamation, composed by one of their own members, in which menace was substituted

stituted for argument, and bluster for discussion. It may be observed, that in this, as in former proclamations, the directory were careful to keep up the line of distinction between the government and the people of England; and while the cabinet of St. James's was treated in terms of unmeasured contempt and contumely, the people were signified as objects of respect and attention. The "*great nation*" was held forth as the avenger of the world; and, relying on the assistance which would be found in the discontented of every party, and who were represented as either groaning under their chains, or struggling for release, the speediest, the most worthy of the various means that were presented of humbling that tyranny, was the march of the army of England to dictate at London the terms of peace!!!

Happily they could only threaten, or rather rail at England; other powers were more exposed to their tyranny and rapacity; and unhappy Switzerland was now marked as the object of their plunder. To colour their aggression, they began with asserting, "that Switzerland had, during the war, been the constant scene of counter-revolutionary intrigue, and that every protection had been openly afforded to the avowed enemies of the French republic; particularly in the catholic cantons, Soleure and Fribourg, lying on the borders of France; and above all, at Berne, the most powerful canton of the Helvetic body." The first insult openly given was demanding from the Helvetic confederacy the expulsion of Mr. Wickham, the English ambassador. For this measure, the excuse was, certain passages in the correspondence, which they pretended had fallen into the hands of general

Moreau. From this correspondence, it was endeavoured to be proved, that Mr. Wickham, under the name of Bruin, or Bruet, was the general paymaster of the various intrigues and *espionage* that had been carried on; the principal end of which was, the defection of general Pichegru; and various ludicrous details are given of the pilfering plots entered into by the subalterns, upon the presumption, as stated by the editors, that the principals in this intrigue had their due share of the general plunder. The senate of Berne had scarcely time to dispatch their messenger to Paris, to remonstrate with the directory, when Mr. Wickham saved them further embarrassment by producing his letters of recall. The deputies, who were sent from Berne to remonstrate, were ordered to quit Paris in a limited time, and their conference with the members of government led them to no flattering conclusions with respect to the permanence even of that external friendship which had hitherto existed between the cantons and the French republic.

The next neutral state to whom the directory chose to display their insolence was the United States of America. The ministers from these states, who were sent over in consequence of the refusal of the French government to treat with Mr. Pinkney, were permitted to remain quietly at Paris, but were refused all audience. We have already stated the grounds of the misunderstanding between the two republics, the chief of which was the favourable treaty concluded with England. Had the directory resented this slight, as they supposed it, in a manly way, they would have, at least, acted an honourable, though not a prudent part; but the
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mode in which they are said to have carried on the negotiation would have been disgraceful to any set of men, except a horde of banditti. — We allude to the proposal of levying a contribution on the United States, as the price of their forbearance.

It was our intention to have given a detail of these transactions; but the late events in France, the accusation of the minister Talleyrand, and of the directors Reubel, La Revellière, and Merlin, will throw fresh light upon this point of history, and will enable us, in the succeeding volume, to give the whole transaction with truth and correctness.

We return again to the domestic affairs of the French republic. The supplies for the ensuing year were voted to the amount of six hundred and sixteen millions of livres *tournois* (25,666,660*l.* sterling), of which two hundred and twenty-eight millions were acquitted by the land tax, and the rest made up by taxes placed on different articles, or saved from the suppression of privileges, such as that of franking, and other economical arrangements; such as farming the posts and the public carriages; and by the conversion, or rather reduction, of the national debt; by which last, however, little gain accrued to the nation, and the semblance, if not the reality, of great injustice was committed on the individual.

It has been already observed, that a motion made by a member in the heat of proscription, for an examination into the political state of the *ci-devant* nobles, had been saved from final rejection by being sent to a commission. The motion was considered at the time as the offspring of an heated imagination, and every one supposed that it would

scarcely survive the breath of the mover. It was nevertheless fostered with great care, and in a month after was issued into the world, under the sanction of several names of considerable revolutionary weight, who, as a commission, had taken it into deep consideration. The motion had been afterwards generalised, and worked up into two problems; the solution of which formed the report of the commission. Of these problems, one was an inquiry, what were the measures of ostracism, exile, and expulsion, the most suitable to the principles of justice and liberty, and the most fitted to consolidate the republic? and the other, after predicating that such an opposition had arisen between the legislative body and the directory, that the progress of the government had been impeded, and the commonwealth put into danger, what were the most politic and regular means the most capable of preventing such a crisis, and of re-establishing the constitutional march of the respective powers? The reporter likewise stated, that the commission was charged to present measures respecting the *ci-devant* nobles, which appeared, from the peroration and the conclusion of the report, to have been the only object that had occupied the attention of the commission, as holding forth something of actual proscription; whilst the problems were things of airy and metaphysical research, the solution of which would be made when there was a necessity for the application. In the present case, the objects were near at hand. The reporter, after inviting the council of five hundred to consider "that every species of privileged nobility was incompatible with the existence of a republic; that the nobles

bles were in a state of foreign and civil war to regain their titles, the end of which was the annihilation of the republic, and the extermination of republicans, asserted, that it was necessary to take such measures against them as should put an end to this war, or prevent its fatal effects; that such measures were commanded by the most imperious and pressing of all necessities, the preservation of the body, civil and politic; that they were no way derogatory to the fundamental compact which the nobles never thought binding; and that they were measures of national justice, as well as public safety;" proposed in different articles, such a general ostracismal proscription of the different classes of the former nobility as, from its enormity, excited the ridicule or indignation of every party. It was admitted; on all sides, that some repressive measures were necessary; but this sweeping ban had far outstretched the speculation even of the wildest revolutionary projectors. Of the necessity of the crisis of the 18th of Fructidor, a considerable body avowed their conviction, though some of the indiscriminate measures that followed excited murmurs, even amongst its advocates; but on this new measure, which, like the tail of the comet, swelling to a million times beyond the bulk of the body, from which it pended, "shook pestilence from its horrent hair," there were no different feelings, either of indignation or terror; the universality of the public voice was heard against it, and those who had been most loud in echoing to the skies the salvation of the republic, from the 18th of Fructidor, were most forward in consigning this measure to final reprobation, as replete even with counter-revolution-

nary matter, and such, for its atrocity, as Robespierre himself would never have attempted. During the printing of the report, and the delay granted as usual for examination, before the discussion took place, the public indignation had risen to its height; motions were made in the council to hasten the day of discussion, that justice might be done to the measure; but the commission seeing, by the signs of the times, that a discussion might probably lead to other measures than the rejection of their report and project, very prudently made an apology, and withdrew it from further public consideration.

Amidst these civil commotions, the fathers of the Gallican church had assembled in national council, to deliberate on a mode or plan of conciliation to repair and cement such genuine parts of this venerable edifice as had been shattered by the rude and savage hand of persecuting power. By this plan, they also hoped to gather into one common fold, those who, agreeing in the unity of faith, had separated from them on certain points, in which each individual became his own guide; since the church, not having foreseen the desolation which would attend it in these later times, had made no prescriptive regulations for the conduct of the faithful, whose fate it should be to fall on such "evil tongues and evil days." No one, whatever be his religious or political creed, except his mind be hardened by the fanaticism of irreligion, blinded by that ignorance which the cant of infidelity has termed "the age of reason," can behold without sensibility an assembly of pious and sincere witnesses to the truth of the doctrines they professed, creeping out of their hiding places after the storm

storm of jacobinical fury, like the Christians of the first ages, after the *philosophical* proscriptions they suffered in the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and fifteenth persecutions, under the administration of Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus, Mark Aureus, and Julian; and behold them looking over the wreck of the visible church, driven by the tempest on the rocks, anxious to gather up the fragments wherewith to fit out the bark with which they hoped to steer safely into port. The meeting of this council had been prepared by the labours of divers bishops, who, after the reign of terror, had assembled in Paris for the purpose of giving provisional instruction. These exhortations were set forth in two encyclical letters, which, till the period of this national council, had been the chief rule of discipline to such of the faithful as acknowledged the spiritual authority of those ecclesiastics who had conformed to the constitutional laws respecting public worship. The object of the labours for which these divines assembled, according to the report of Gregoire, the bishop of Blois, was to obtain the liberty of public worship, and its re-organisation throughout the republic; to reconcile, if possible, the non-juring clergy, and re-establish, as far as was practicable, their communion, as well with the holy see as with the foreign churches. In the struggle with ignorance and sceptical fanaticism, it appears that Gregoire stood single in the convention; and it is not without a smile that we find that body, after a long debate, deciding on rejecting the motion for toleration of the catholic worship, on the assurance of a member, that the cardinal of Lorrain, in person, loaded the carabine of Charles IX. for the

murder of the protestants, on St. Bartholomew's day; "an historical event," observes the bishop, "which the member could only have learnt from the theatre, in a miserable tragedy written by Chenier, since the cardinal was at that time at Rome, three hundred leagues distance;" but the statement roused the indignation of the assembly, who, sitting up their hats, and crying "long live the republic!" concluded, that the church and state could not exist together, however disunited.

Whilst this persecution was exercising against the catholic church, Gregoire stood for some time single against the torrent, publishing exhortations and pastoral letters; but the cry for public worship becoming general, the legislature were compelled to grant universal toleration. This abundant toleration, the republicans assert, introduced into France a swarm of non-juring and disaffected priests; but although the conforming clergy stood in a very different point of view with respect to the republic, the undisciplined and ignorant multitude chilled them under the same description, and the name of priest became an odious imputation. As it was contrary to the law to proscribe opinion, or interrupt the course of public worship, as long as the members conformed to the regulations demanded by the law, those who were most zealous for the entire abolition of the catholic religion projected another means of effecting their purpose, by the establishment of a counter-religion, called Theophilanthropism. This sect sprung up in silence, and was at first composed of a select number, who assembled in private houses for the purpose of religious worship, confining the object to one Supreme Being, in contradiction to what they deemed

deemed the polytheism of the catholic faith, without altar, offering, or priest. This sect is stated, by the bishop of Blois, to have taken its origin from an attempt of the same kind, made in London twenty years since; but it is likely that these sectaries never heard of this attempt. The project of establishing a system of worship under the name of *Dieux-coles*, by Voltaire, long before that period, and the dedication inscribed on the parish church which he built at Ferney, were subjects better known, and more fitted to account for the origin of the present profession of faith, than the obscure establishment of a deistical sect in England, which is stated to have fallen at its birth. A worship so simple in its form and doctrine was likely to attract notice were it from no other cause than its opposition to the pomp and mysticism of the catholic faith and ceremonies. Some from conviction of the truth of this new creed, and others from hatred to the old, became supporters of the Theophilanthropical religion.

The new government, after the revolution of the 4th of September, found this doctrine a better instrument to crush the old faith than laws or arrêtés, which had more of power than persuasion, and therefore became its zealous advocates; and a member of the directory, who is also member of the national institute, Larevellière Lepeaux, read an essay, which he afterwards published, on national festivals, in which he asserted that the catholic religion was hostile to reason and to liberty. The assertion was neither new nor uncommon, nor did the authority of a directory give it more than its due weight; but it was answered by Gregoire at the time, with his usual warmth and eloquence, who considered the asser-

tion as a libel on the national character: the controversy went no further. The sect continued to increase, as would any other absurdity under the sanction of the ruling powers; and they at length took possession of the public churches, hitherto exclusively possessed by the catholics; where, according to mutual or municipal regulations for the observance of these discordant services, with respect to the hours of public worship, the offering of the wheaten-ear and the bouquet of flowers to the divinity was followed or preceded by the mystic and sumptuous rites of the Romish church. The silly attempt has, however, we believe, already fallen into total discredit; and, whatever may be the political changes which may take place in France, we apprehend that popery will stand its ground on the old foundation of the religion of their fathers, under the name of Christianity, until the time come when the discovery of the real and genuine doctrines of the latter shall bring into one fold both those who are anxious for truth, and those, also, whom presumption or ignorance lead, at present, to deny its existence.

To return to the assembly of the Gallican church.—The past and present state of the church was laid before this venerable body. The fire of the late persecution, whilst it had vitrified the faith of some had melted away the constancy of others. Amongst the instances of apostacy laid before the council was the marriage of nine bishops. Twelve other bishops had formally abdicated their episcopal seats, or refused to fill them; eight had perished on the scaffold, and thirteen had died natural deaths. Of the new departments in the south of France, two bishops had emigrated, those

those of Porentrui and Nice; and that of Avignon had not assumed his functions. In the newly united departments of the north, four bishops had emigrated, and three had died natural deaths; the other two were only titular. Of the emigrant bishops, it appears that forty had died in foreign countries: one, the bishop of Dol, had been shot as a rebel at Quiberon; and others, it appeared, had held ecclesiastical synods in different countries, and been active promoters of counter-revolutionary projects against the republic.

When the episcopal seats were vacant in various places, presbyteries were formed, whose office it was to hasten the nomination of bishops. Of fourteen presbyteries, three only had followed the mode prescribed in the encyclical letters, published the preceding year. Some few dioceses, that had neither formed presbyteries, nor named bishops, were under the direction of some other kind of administration, and fifteen others remained without any spiritual government or administration whatever. To re-organise public worship and ecclesiastical government throughout the republic was an arduous and difficult task. For this purpose, extensive correspondences were established; periodical publications, such as the annals of religion, were circulated; and societies formed in imitation of the Teylerian society at Harlem: many works were published, and many were in the way of publication, among which was the Bishop of Landan's Apology for the Bible.

After attempting to re-organise the administration of the church, the next solicitude of these bishops was to attempt to call back their non-conforming brethren, for which purpose they were invit-

ed, by a circular letter, to join in the council. The general answers given to this invitation were comprised in a few words; such as "wolves, forswearers, intruders, robbers, heretics, schismatics." Of these indignant sons of the church, Camille Jourdan had been the apologist, by stating, that, in the papers sent to the council of five hundred by the directory, the commission had not found that the non-jurors had formed more opposition to the laws than the conforming clergy. The reporter had probably not read the papers; for the account of the bishop of Blois is very different. "I am perhaps the only one," says Gregoire, "who has had the patience to read over the enormous collection of about three thousand packets, laid before the council. To prevent the sale of the national lands, and the payment of taxes; to give protection to deserters and emigrants; to hinder the young men from repairing to the service of their country; to order the cutting down the trees of liberty; to tread under foot the characteristic signs of liberty; to be in an habitual state of planning conspiracies; to trouble the peace of families; to preach hatred and vengeance against the conformists; is the analysis of this voluminous collection."

Such was the ecclesiastical state of France previous to the holding of this national council. From the report made of the state of the church, with respect to the colonies and foreign missions, it appears that Corsica, which before the revolution was under the spiritual jurisdiction of five bishops, had now but one. In the number of the faithful which this island contains, is a colony of Greeks, descendants of the ancient Spartans, who emigrated from that classic

country at the close of the last century, and who had shaken off their spiritual allegiance from their superior, the Greek archbishop of the college of St. Athanasius, at Rome, at the epoch of taking the civil oath, and had put themselves under the guidance of the new bishop of their diocese. The church in the West Indies, particularly in St. Domingo, had partaken of the commotions of that colony, of which twelve priests had divided the ecclesiastical labours. The apostle of that colony, as well as its civil deliverer, appears to have been the negro general, Toussaint Louverture, who, "by his Christian virtues, his attachment to liberty, and his military talents, merits universal esteem." This general, who has been called the man predicted by the abbé Raynal, as the avenger of his race, and their redeemer from slavery (and who was him-

self a slave at the time of the revolution), had published a proclamation* which breathes a spirit of piety scarcely expected to be found in a general, much less in the sable commander of negro armies.

Of the Spanish part of St. Domingo ceded to the French by the late treaty, the archbishop, who appeared inclined to favour the convocation of a national council, had been translated from thence to a richer bishoprick in Mexico. The inhabitants of the other islands in the West Indies had been too much occupied about their physical and political existence to pay due attention to spiritual concerns; but in the French settlements in South America, Cayenne, and Guiana, the progress of religion among the Indians, as related by father Jacquemin, who resided upwards of twenty years in those parts, is not less pleasing to the political econo-

* "Brethren and friends, beware of thinking that in any circumstance, in which success has crowned my undertakings, I have had the vain presumption of attributing the glory to myself. The light of religion, that sure and faithful guide of my conduct, has always shown me to whom I was indebted—to God!—to that infinite Being, by whom we live and move, whose power extends over the whole of the human race, and whose invisible hand guides and governs the universe. If the example which I gave you had been sufficient to fix in your hearts the love of that Being who has heaped on us so many benefits, I should not now have been compelled to have awakened in you again the remembrance of them.

"After seeing yourselves lightened of those fetters beneath which you have so long time groaned, and after having recovered your rights, you may, perhaps, in the delirium of your joy, have attributed your change of condition to human means alone: but if such has been your blindness, open your eyes; and be assured, that the will and act which have accomplished the revolution that has shaken off from your necks, and those of your fellow sufferers, the shameful yoke, are of God alone: his beneficence and justice has placed you again in the rank of men: study to practise and fulfil your duties as well towards him as towards society, of which you now form a portion. It is therefore time that you should persuade yourselves of the indispensable necessity of acknowledging two objects to which you owe veneration, submission, and affection; these two objects are, God and the law.

"Officers and soldiers of the army, the first of your duties is to honour God, the next to serve your country. The first obligation consists not only in the observation of a worship which all nations of the earth are agreed to render to the Supreme Being, you must join to this external mark of respect the exercise of every virtue: let your example lead those over whom you may have influence to the remembrance of a religion which they seem to have forgotten, and inspire them with sentiments necessary to the purity of morals, without which the re-establishment of order and peace will become impossible: let your example especially, and, if it be necessary, your authority, correct that frantic system of gaming, the fatal effects of which are not less frequently attended with the loss of honour than with that of life, &c. &c."

mist, as the means of spreading civilisation and knowledge, than it is affecting to the pious mind, solicitous for the cultivation of those sentiments which give their just value to both.

With the other colonies belonging to the French in Africa and Asia little communication had taken place. The administrators of the islands of the Mauritius had sold the estates of their clergy, and had paid them regularly their pensions. One of these islands had ten priests, but the morals of the people were not in the highest state of purity; another had twelve, and the harvest of piety was abundant. They were formerly under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Paris, but at present acknowledged no supremacy.

Such is the present state of the catholic faith in the countries dependent on France. Of the welfare and prosperity of the church in foreign parts, the destruction of the seminary of foreign missions at Paris, and the irreparable loss of the manuscripts and correspondence belonging to that society, together with the interruption necessarily occasioned by the war, leave this part of its modern history imperfect. In the eastern part of the world, according to a memorial presented to the constituent assembly, there was at that epoch six French bishops, and thirty-eight priests, who superintended six colleges, and were assisted by Indian acolytes, and catechumens. The establishment of Pondicherry maintained besides two bishops, nineteen missionaries, and a college. At Camboya, Siam, Tanguin, and Pegu, there were also missionaries, and about three hundred thousand believers. From the impossibility of communication with the east, for the reasons above mentioned, the report made to the

council with respect to the missionaries in China is a transcript from the interesting voyage written by sir George Staunton, and the reporter has not lost sight of the tribute of praise paid by that elegant writer to the humanity of these missionaries, in the double salvation which they offer to exposed infants, nor failed to put in contrast the effects of the precepts and practice of the gospel, with the ferocity of paganism, and the ignorance of those European philosophers who boast the superior mildness of its institutions, and the beneficence of its laws.

Of the different religious establishments in the east, on the shores of the Mediterranean, little has been learnt. The Christian college of Damascus is praised by the vicar of the Holy Land; but all in that quarter have not, it appears, the same claim to his approbation. At Grand Cairo, the Latin and Greek priests share the same church, and live together in mutual charity and toleration. This liberty of worship, it seems, reposes on a charter granted by Mahomet, or which made part of a treaty concluded at that period with the Christians. This treaty has been spoken of by various publicists. A copy now existing in Paris has been translated very lately, and the printing of it in the French and Arabic, with a preface establishing its authenticity, was begun at the presses of the republic. Behenam, a Chaldee priest of Mosul, near ancient Nineveh, and who is now in Paris, asserts, that the original of this treaty is in the hands of the religious order of the Jacobites. Application had been made to the late apostolical vicar of Babylon, who is now gone as consul to Muscat in Arabia, and to Gallois, a consul at Bagdad, as well as others, to make diligent

search. Information on this subject has been since gained; and it is highly probable, that this object of research, the original treaty, is now existing at Deir-Afferein, the residence of the Jacobite patriarch, near Merdin.

At Smyrna and Constantinople, there were eleven or twelve establishments, of which the Lazaristes composed the principal part. Of these missionaries, little that is favourable is related. At the epoch of the revolution, quarrels civil and religious arose between the different members of these societies, in which the Porte interposed by shutting up their houses at Constantinople, and placing them temporarily under the direction of the Turkish minister of police. When the late ambassador, Aubert Dubayet, arrived at Constantinople, the establishments were put into his possession; and as no good account could be given of the civism of the missionaries, the keys were remitted to two Ex-jesuits, who resided in that city. The religious establishments were filled up by Ex-jesuits of good reputation, who were scattered over the Levant. A French church was opened at Constantinople; and the reis-effendi, in giving the orders, testified the interest he took in this act of religious toleration.

While the expenses of these missionaries were defrayed from funds that were consecrated for that purpose, the views of their mission were in general religiously solaced; but, as the propagation of the catholic faith is no longer among the first objects of French government, it can scarcely be expected that zeal on the part of the faithful will entirely compensate for indifference on the part of the governors.

These establishments are, however, not very burdensome; from

the last accounts of the expenditure, the whole did not amount annually to more than 280,000 livres, 11,666 pounds sterling. Whether the government will countenance these spiritual embassies, from political motives, is uncertain. These missionaries have already rendered valuable services to science and literature; and it must be regretted that these sources of knowledge are now shut up to Europe.

In this interesting struggle of the catholic church, with the torrent that is pouring in on it from every side from infidelity, nothing is more amusing to a serious bystander than to witness the hesitations, the deference, the decisions, and the various conflicts between pious prejudice and manly resolve, which agitate the breasts of these venerable fathers, when they look towards the author and finisher of their faith, the holy see. The learned reporter, in order to excuse the schisms of the constitutional clergy from the authority of the court of Rome, which the pope has characterised in his bulls and briefs by heretical rebellion, has quoted the authorities of former schismatics, such as Melchior Canus, in his advice to the emperor Charles V.; of Bessarion to the council of Florence, and even of St. Bernard; of the opposition made by the Italian bishops to the late bull *unverborum fidei*, against which, when sent to the council of Cadix to obtain the *exequatur*, protests had been made by the Gallican bishops, and had counteracted, though with extreme difficulty, its effects. Emboldened by these authorities, which sanctioned their opposition to the authority of the holy see, they turn the arms of the church against the holy father himself, and quote the observation of

of an English writer, who proves, from the famous bull *in cœna Domini*, that the pope having received into his port the vessels of the English, who were heretics, and given them aid, is himself excommunicated, without power of absolution, even at death, but by another pope; for such are the decisions of this bull.

Whether the pope has incurred this penalty or not, it appears that, latterly, the holy father had thrown a look of tenderness over the distracted state of the church, and even before the late treaty of peace had shown a disposition to put an end to the troubles that divided it. Secret correspondences had been carried on for that purpose, which it was not prudent to make public; and had the government of France shown itself liberal and tolerant, religious as well as civil harmony would probably have been restored.

As the reporter is convinced that the catholic religion, well understood, is the exclusive friend of all free governments, he congratulates the councils on its progress in Southern America, where there are many learned bishops and priests. In protestant countries in Europe, besides those already mentioned, it appears that chapels are opened in Sweden, and mass has lately been celebrated at Stockholm, for the first time these 200 years past. In Russia, a catholic archbishop has been established at Mohilow, who, it appears, is but little disposed to yield to the invasions of the court of Rome. In some part of the catholic cantons of Switzerland, the light is piercing, in others the darkness is yet visible. In the northern parts of Italy, the regeneration is making hasty strides. In Naples and Portugal the suspicions of government have prevented almost all correspondence; but in Spain a

new order of things is arising favourable both to religion and liberty, of which motives of prudence prevent at present the publication.

The learned bishop, after detailing the various difficulties which had occurred in the convocation of this national council, from the novelty and danger of the circumstances, and the situation in which they were placed, closed his interesting report with an eloquent peroration to the venerable assembly of reverend fathers:—"The political world is shaken to its centre; the inquisition and despotism, tyranny, civil and religious, are crumbling to the dust; although sufficient data be not laid down to indicate the exact term, or calculate the total result of this general shock impressed on the world, which enlightened men, even among the Jews, consider as the forerunners of changes yet more strange and eventful. The whole of prophecy is now accomplishing: it is not for us to know the time and the moment; nevertheless, from the appearance of the natural and moral phenomena which present themselves to our eyes, the Christian is compelled to concentrate his thoughts, to ask if the epoch be not near in which the catholic religion shall enlighten the whole of the new world; when the descendants of the gentiles among us (the race of modern infidels), shall be deprived of the lights of the gospel, which they have abused; when the remains of the tribe of Israel, whom the breath of God has scattered over the face of the earth, shall acknowledge him whom they have pierced, and shall become a consolation to the church."

The first acts of the council were the publication of a synodical letter to the pastors, and to the faithful,

on the means of establishing religious peace; and a letter to the bishops and priests resident in France, in the same spirit of Christian charity. As the primary object of the council was to lay down a plan of general pacification, these reverend fathers proceeded methodically to inquire what ought to be the nature of the plan of conciliation? to whom this union ought to be proposed? in what spirit, and on what points they ought to agree? what ought to be the conditions of the pacification? and whether it were necessary to address it to the pope, and likewise to the bishops of foreign churches. These various topics underwent long examination. The first article respecting the nature of the plan was vague and indistinct; the base of it was stated to be the three virtues, of charity, justice, and truth, and proportioned to the extent of the evils that had desolated the Gallican church. The next, which relates to the individuals and bodies that should be invited to compose this union, was more precise and specific. The emigrant priests were excluded from necessity, being in a state of banishment; and of those who resided in France, the majority remained under the interdiction, as long as they persisted in their refusal to submit to the laws of the republic. With respect to the points on which they ought to agree, and the spirit in which they were to act, it was proposed that a general oblivion should cover all former dissensions, and that the acknowledged tenets of the church should be the prescribed articles of belief. As to the means of pacification, it was accorded as a general rule, that all pastors and priests, who should remain faithful to their vocation, should be called, without distinction, to the exercise of the

ministry, whatever might have been their opinions on the questions which have divided the church of France. The bishops of foreign churches were to be presented with the decree of reconciliation; and the article of the submission of the plan to the pope was conceived in a spirit of entire subjection. The Gallican church, after protesting its inviolable attachment to the C. A. R. Church, acknowledges that the pope is by divine right the visible chief; and that he thereby has the primacy of honour and jurisdiction; that the members of it profess all the dogmas received by the catholic church, and condemn all the errors which it has proscribed.

Amidst the great and extraordinary events which were taking place in Europe, the situation of the French possessions in more distant parts of the world have not escaped our attention. After the defeat of the rebels, mentioned in our last, it appears that the colony of St. Domingo began to assume an aspect of order and cultivation. The conduct of the commissary Santhonax had been the subject of violent debates in the legislature, previous to the 18th of Fructidor; and the influence of the anti-directorial party had weighed down every evidence that was attempted to be adduced in favour of his administration. It would be too long, and, for the purposes of general history, too tedious to enter into the detail of the conflict which took place between the various parties; but, since the re-establishment of order, and the re-organisation of the government, the negroes, it appears, by official papers, have returned to labour; the habitations that have been destroyed were rebuilt; and the plantations that had been desolated have

have again been turned to considerable profit. The official report made of the actual state of the colony was confirmed by the acknowledgement of a member of the upper council, since banished, whose information was not, therefore, to be suspected. The negroes indent themselves for terms, or take their wages in kind, or share in the produce according to previous agreements made with the proprietor; and humanity, according to these reports, is no longer wounded by the most terrible spectacle of human misery.

The pacification of the French republic with the empire had been adjourned by the treaty of Campo Formio to the congress of Radstadt. The meeting of this congress was represented as big with the fate of Europe. It was asserted that an assemblage of the representatives of such high and mighty powers, interested or connected with the empire, would form an epoch much more remarkable in history than that of the treaty of Westphalia; that the foundations of a lasting peace would be laid by the further sanction about to be given by the French republic under the protection of the house of Austria to the integrality of the empire, agreeably to the preliminaries of peace signed at Leoben; and that the pretensions of the French would be checked or awed by such an union of will and power, if any dispositions of further aggrandisement were discovered. The plenipotentiaries from various powers had already assembled, whilst Buonaparte, who had waited in Italy till the mutual ratification of the treaty with the emperor had taken place, was employed in planning or arranging the governments which he had formed. The Cisalpine republic, into which general

name had sunk the provisional Cispadane, and Transpadane republics, had taken the French constitution for their guide. The organisation of the different departments of this new state had been arranged under the direction of Buonaparte, and the places of trust and dignity had been filled agreeably to his nomination. For this exercise of power, the general apologises in a letter which he addresses to the Cisalpine people on his leaving their territory, in which he informs them, "that the inconveniences which may arise from his fallibility in having sometimes mistaken the intriguer for the man of worth are much less than would have arisen had he left the nomination to themselves before they were yet organised." He moreover observed to them, "that they were the first example in history of a people who had become free without factions, revolutions, or commotions; that as France had given them liberty, they should learn how to preserve it; that being next to France, the most populous and richest republic in Europe, they should learn how to preserve that liberty, by becoming worthy of their high destiny, in making only wise and moderate laws, and executing them with force and energy; by favouring the spread of knowledge, and respecting the rights of conscience." He advised them also to make up the military force of their country, not with vagrants or dissolute men, but with citizens imbued with the principles of the republic, and immediately attached to the prosperity of their country. He observed, "that divided and bowed down for so many years, under the yoke of slavery, they would never have acquired their liberty; but with regulations like these, in a few years, were they

left to themselves, no power on earth would take it from them; that till that period France would protect them against the attacks of their neighbours, and that her political system would be united to their own:" he finished by remarking, "that in order to consolidate their liberty, and with the view only of their prosperity and happiness, he had undertaken a task which could hitherto have been inspired only by ambition and the love of power; that he was then about to leave them to return only by the orders of his government, or if any imminent danger awaited their republic, for whose glory in every place, wherever the service of his country should call him, he should entertain the most sincere affection and the most anxious solicitude."

Buonaparte left Italy at the moment when the Cisalpine government was duly installed (20 Nov.).

The opening of the Cisalpine legislature presented nearly the same scenes as had been witnessed in France at the first sittings of the constituent assembly. Although it is said that Buonaparte had exercised his best judgment in the election of the individuals who composed these bodies, they were found, when assembled, to form but an heterogeneous mass; discordant in their views and sentiments, and jealous and suspicious of each other. Ignorant of the true landmarks of liberty, some enacted the parts of the Paris jacobins, and made absurd and inexecutable propositions; others, justly affrighted at the exaggeration of their colleagues, made counterpropositions of tendencies so different, as to incur, with no measured terms, the disapprobation of the republican party. Discordant as they were in their opinions and

sentiments respecting each other, all parties in the legislative assemblies united against the executive power. This jealousy of the executive power, which is a virtue in a despotic state, where every thing torn from that power is an addition to the liberties of the people, becomes a political vice of the most dangerous kind when it is exercised against the executive power of a free state. If in despotic governments this power cannot be too weak, so in free governments, which are regulated by precise and written laws, it can hardly be too strong, while it does not violate the strict letter of the law; and force thus tempered, especially in the beginning of new governments, is one of the most essential and important attributes of liberty.

Among the conquests in the expedition against the pope, it must be remembered that the port of Ancona, in the Adriatic, was an object of no small moment. By the treaty, this port and its dependencies were to remain in the possession of the French till the continental peace. By this treaty, as the peace had taken place, Ancona ought to have been restored to the holy see. It had, however, been too long under the tutorage of the French not to have unlearned most of its habitual feelings of reverential allegiance. The people of Ancona, probably stimulated by a French party or the French government, declared themselves sovereign, and communicated their resolve to be free, and their will to form themselves into a representative government under the protection of France, to the French general, who commanded in that quarter, and who instantly acceded to the wish, and proclaimed the free and independent republic of Ancona. The republic of St.

Maring

Marino underwent also, at this period, a revolution; and the power and patronage of the state, which had hitherto been concentrated in the hands of the nobles, was now distributed in equal portions among the council of the state.

The journey of Buonaparte through Switzerland would have resembled a triumph, had his vanity corresponded with the eagerness of homage; he arrived at Rad-

stadt, where he found the plenipotentiaries assembled, and where he exchanged with count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the court of Vienna. As soon as this ceremony had taken place, he departed from Radstadt for Paris, leaving behind him the commissaries Treillard and Bonnier to represent the republic in the congress that was to open on the first of January ensuing.

CHAP. XIII.

Affairs of Rome. Treaty of Tolentino. Embarrassments of the Papal Government. Extreme Poverty of the Treasury. The Subjects of the Pope compelled to contribute the whole of their Plate. Secretary of State, Cardinal Busca, dismissed. Cardinal Doria appointed to that Office. Revolutionary Movements in different Parts of the Papal Dominions. Embassy from Spain to the Pope. Indisposition of the Pope. Various Candidates for the Tiara. Indignation of the People against the Nephews of the Pope. Clergy obliged to render in an Account of their Possessions. Joseph Buonaparte sent as Ambassador to Rome. Popular tumult at Rome—General Duphot killed. The Pope and his Ministry innocent of the Murder. Melancholy Consequences of this Affair. French Directory make it an Excuse for overturning the Government. March of General Berthier. Insurrection of the People at Rome. The Roman Republic proclaimed. Flight of the Cardinals, &c. Extraordinary Escape of Cardinal Maury. Rancidity and indiscriminate Oppression on the Part of the French. Pope confined to his Palace. Fortunes of his Nephews confiscated. Review of the Causes which precipitated the Decline and Fall of the Papal Authority. Dyaffection of certain Catholic Princes. Conduct of the Protestant Powers towards the Pope. Disputes with the French Clergy previous to the Revolution. Conduct of the Pope after that Event. His Conduct after his Abdication. Removed from Rome. Happy and respectable in Retirement. His Character. Reflections on the Revolution, and the new Government established by the French at Rome.

IN the history of the past year, the most prominent figure in the canvas, and the first in order of time, is that assemblage of temporal and spiritual power, the papal see; which, after repeated struggles against dissolution, of which slight sketches have been given in our preceding history, now sunk into, at least, a temporary annihilation. The rise and progress of this

mighty empire, which held so wide a dominion over the human race, and whose influence not only directed the affairs of earth, but pervaded the invisible world, has often swelled the page of the historian. The annals of history have indeed frequently been little else than records of the tyranny of this church; and its decline, and possibly its fall, at this portentous season

son of reformation and change, are no less worthy of attention. We have already given the details of the negotiations between the French republic and the pope; and we shall proceed to record the events which took place at Rome, from the period when Buonaparte signed the treaty at Tolentino, to that when the Roman senate and people were again proclaimed at the capitol.

Buonaparte, after having given another respite to the holy see, by the signature of that treaty, left the dominions of the pope in possession of a small portion of his army till the articles of the treaty were executed. During the negotiation the pope struck with terror, and expecting that no further freedom could be extended towards him, had made preparations for flight to Naples, with such of his treasures as could be conveniently transported. All was anarchy and confusion at Rome till the news of peace arrived; when the pontiff was turned from his purpose of escape, and the people were consoled, or insulted, with processions, prayers, and priestly imprecations against the French.

Although peace had prolonged the political existence of the holy see, it had nevertheless been left in extreme embarrassment. The pope, whose conduct had been lately marked by a series of follies, became almost an object of compassion. His counter-revolutionary hopes were now utterly overthrown; three of his provinces were irremediably lost; his coffers were empty; his subjects discontented; and every apparent resource exhausted by the exactions which had already been made to pay the tribute of the armistice granted by the French the last summer. But in order to execute the present treaty, it was necessary to make new

exertions, and mournful edicts were accordingly published the week that followed the signing of the peace, in which the holy father, after calling to the remembrance of his subjects, that having in the last season of calamity demanded the whole of their plate, he had contented himself with half; he must now, when circumstances were more critical, as every one well knew, be compelled to request, that within three days the other half might be carried to the pontifical treasury.

The issuing of this edict was one of the last labours of the secretary of state, the cardinal Busca, whose impolicy had again involved the holy see in calamities, and nearly accomplished its ruin. This sacrifice of the treasury was a necessary homage both to the French and Spanish ministers; the latter of whom, the chevalier D'Azara, a statesman of consummate skill and wisdom, had withdrawn himself to Florence at the time when he discovered the ruinous policy that directed the operations of the papal cabinet, in opposition to those wise and conciliatory measures which he had proposed as mediator between the French republic and the holy see. It was difficult among the cardinals to name a successor to this high office who should prove agreeable to the French government, since almost the whole of the sacred college were conscious how little claim they had from this consideration. The choice fell at length on cardinal Doria, who, although united by family ties to the Neapolitan minister at Rome, the marquis del Vasto, who was the soul of that party which had directed the late measures, had nevertheless always lived on terms of intimacy with the ministers, both of France and Spain. This minister, though a sensible and upright man,

man, had neither the experience nor the energy which the circumstances of the times required; but no power or skill were perhaps sufficient to repair so disordered a machine: the chief merit of his short administration was, that he did not accelerate its dissolution.

The symptoms of this dissolution had long since appeared, and the peace of Tolentino, far from averting, had only added to the public penury and discontent. A revolutionary or fanatical spirit had pervaded the ecclesiastical state in all its parts. While in the jurisdiction of Ancone, at Macenta, Yesi, and Monte St. Elpidio, frequent insurrections took place against the French, which were quelled only by shedding torrents of blood, the inhabitants of the duchy of Urbino are said to have expressed a degree of horror at the idea of returning under the papal yoke; and the provinces situated nearer to the capital, little anxious to conceal their treason, expressed their wishes of re-union to the Cispadane republic.

Although his catholic majesty had conceived great indignation against the holy see on account of the contempt shown to the mediation of D'Azara, nevertheless, from motives of attachment to the person of the pope, and of religious respect for his sacred authority, he permitted his ambassador to return again to Rome. The reigning party at Madrid took advantage also of this renewal of filial affection in the king to rid themselves of two priests, the archbishops of Seville and Seleucia, whose influence and conduct were supposed to have been an obstacle to their plans. These prelates, together with the cardinal Lorenzano, archbishop of Toledo, formed the embassy to Rome, to compliment the pope,

and aid him with their counsels. The archbishop of Toledo, a man of exemplary life and manners, undertook the journey from apostolical motives; the two others, D'Espuig and Musquiz, the last of whom was the queen's confessor, annexed imaginary ideas of great importance to their mission, which they had sought from motives of personal ambition. A residence of a few months convinced those two prelates, that their embassy, which had occasioned so much speculation both in Italy and Spain, would prove fruitless and unavailing with respect to their designs. They returned to Spain, leaving behind them the archbishop of Toledo, who, like an affectionate son, followed his father to the end of his temporal career, consoling him by his presence, amidst all his distresses and troubles.

The long series of mortification through which the pope had lately passed, affected his health so much, that at this period his life was despaired of; and though his office was become an object of dangerous ambition, various cardinals put themselves forward as candidates for the tiara. His unexpected recovery disappointed their hopes, as well as those of the Roman people, who were wearied with so long and extraordinary a reign, and who flattered themselves that a change would terminate, or, at least, allay their miseries. This disaffection was principally manifested towards his nephew, the duke of Braschi. Amongst the chief subjects of discontent against Pius VI., was his extravagant fondness for his nephews. The duke of Braschi had long been loaded with the spoils and execrations of the people, before the spirit of revolution had prevailed among them. Their curses were not only deep, but now uttered

tered in a tone so loud, that the duke was compelled to quit Rome with precipitation. Insurrectionary placards were stuck up at his palace; French airs were sung in public; revolutionary whiffles were heard in every quarter; and the political death of the holy see was mentioned as an event which would speedily take place, since, it was profanely observed, to "be at that time in the act of receiving extreme unction."

The reins of government had of late been so loosely held, that these marks of popular indignation had been but unnoticed, or at least unrestrained. Little comparative danger was to have been apprehended from those excesses, since the means of information were wanting among the educated a people; but the result, which had remained, as it were, a passive spectator of those disorders, began about the middle of the summer to change its operations, and became tyrannical through fear. The garrison of St. Angelo was at once changed and augmented: the castle furnished with ammunition and provisions, as if about to undergo a siege; and troops were distributed in different quarters of the town. The detestable French system of suspicion became at Rome the order of the day; many of the inhabitants were arrested and imprisoned as suspected; the people, whose only consolation under the miseries which they felt was the liberty of murmuring against them, were indignant at being deprived of this last comfort, and boldly declared that the last hour of the holy see was come.

This revolutionary spirit, which no papal edicts could charm, and which the chains and dungeons of St. Angelo could but little repress, was aided by the pecuniary embarrassments of the state. The *cedule*,

or paper-money, had already lost half their value, when the government was obliged to make another emission of this discredited currency. The contributions exacted by the French at the treaty of Tolentino had exhausted every private and public coffer; and the riches of the clergy now remained the only resource. But how form any attempts against that sacred and inviolable property? The profane touch of Joseph II. had so alarmed the pontiff in an early part of his reign, that he had undertaken a journey from Rome to Vienna, to reclaim the wanderer, and assert the privileges of the church. Long had the thunder of the vatican rolled against the sacrilegious horrors of the French legislature, and against that spirit of injustice which had dared to confound the treasure of the church with that of the state. Could it then be imagined that that authority which had been most strenuously exercised in opposing such daring innovations, that the head of the church itself, that he who was specially chosen to be the guardian of its sacred rights, should become himself the violator? Such were the inquiring murmurs of the astonished clergy when they beheld the edict which enjoined them, both secular and regular, to present a detailed account of their possessions, and to advance, by way of loan, a sixth part of their value to the exigencies of the state.

This sacrilegious innovation raised a host of new enemies, and these the most dangerous against the holy see. The pope, whenever he appeared in public, was received with marks of disapprobation. Several of the cardinals were also insulted; but the public rage continued to be chiefly pointed at his nephew, on whom was lavished every expression of indignation and contempt. The spirit

spirit of insubordination gained ground; political conspiracies were daily formed, amongst which that of the student at Rome appeared the most prominent. The arrests and imprisonments, which sometimes took place, only served to aggravate the evil. The government had fallen into too much contempt to be really the object of fear; and the pope, without having exercised any act of severity, which the circumstances of the times might have in some measure justified, was reduced to the unprotected and distressing state of suspicious tyrants.

It was in this distracted situation of affairs, that Joseph Buonaparte, the brother of the general, entered Rome, as ambassador from the French republic. The peace of Campo Formio, which had just been signed, left no further hopes of Austrian interference; and the pope yielded without hesitation to various exhortations made by the French minister; among which were, the reduction of his troops, the release of those inhabitants of Rome and foreigners who had been imprisoned for their political opinions, the clearing the ecclesiastical state from French emigrants, and the dismissal of the Austrian general, Provera, sent by the court of Vienna for the papal service.

The presence of Joseph Buonaparte, who is represented as mild and gentle in his manners, unlike those ferocious emissaries of the French government who have been commonly sent under the form of commissaries and diplomatic agents, to serve, or rather disgrace the cause of the republic in the eyes of Europe, excited new hopes of happier days and freer times to the chiefs of the Roman government.

But although a momentary calm appeared on the French horizon, the storm was gathering in the Cis-

alpine republic. The refusal or delay of the holy see to acknowledge its political existence, was deemed a sufficient motive to threaten a declaration of war; and the promise of acknowledgement, extorted by the menace, served only to awaken new claims, which though obsolete and absurd from their antiquity, being founded on transactions between pope Stephen and king Pepin, served as a pretext for the claimants to seize on the fort St. Leon, of which they gained possession after a bloody resistance from the militia and armed peasantry of the vicinage. The orators proceeded no further on their march; a brief, in form, acknowledging the existence, and expressing a desire to live in good understanding with the new republic, recommended by the French minister, put a stop to further hostilities, against which the pontiff could have made no long or effectual resistance, even had he not already reached the end of the papal career.

There was nothing at this epoch (28 December), either in the conduct of the people or the government, which threatened its immediate subversion. Both had been of late so much accustomed to suffering and mortifications, that they seemed to feel an ility but lightly. The government had softened greatly its late severity; and the people had fallen from accents of rage and clamor into their habitual murmurs. The partisans of the French revolution were numerous; but the chief the most respectable, and most dreaded by the government, the moderate and reasoning party, manifested no symptoms of extraordinary discontent; and the vigilance of the police was deemed sufficient to restrain the turbulent dispositions of the rest. But notwithstanding this apparent

apparent tranquillity, a few fanatics had conceived the idea that a revolution might easily be effected; and three persons addressed themselves to the French ambassador (26th December), to inform him of their intentions, and inquire if the French government would protect their revolution when once effected. The ambassador rejected their overtures, and peremptorily enjoined them never to come again into his presence with such projects, of which he displayed to them the folly and impracticability. The following day, however, a tumult took place near the quarter of the Villa de Medicis, in which two of the pope's dragoons were killed by the insurgents, assembled to the number of a hundred. These were afterwards dispersed; many were arrested; and as the French cockade, which they had assumed, wore the appearance of French support or connivance, the ambassador hastened the next morning (28th December) to the secretary of state, to give in the list of those who, employed in his service or placed under his protection, had the right of wearing it; requesting that every other person by whom it was worn might be punished. Six of the insurgents had taken refuge in the jurisdiction of the palace of France; these the ambassador consented also to give up, that no doubt might remain with respect to his conduct or intentions, and that their impunity might not encourage others.

While this interlocution was taking place between the two ministers, the popular tumult, if such name could be given to the small number who had put themselves in insurrection, became more serious: and at the close of the day the gates of the French palace were entered by twenty persons, one of whom, a French artist, vehemently demanded

the aid of the French republic, as their liberty was now assured. The minister, struck with his insolent temerity, ordered him, with his comrades, to quit the palace, assuring them, that unless they instantly obeyed he would take severe measures against them. The military officers who were with the minister remonstrated also with them on the folly and rashness of their conduct. Meanwhile the tumult increased without, and the cry of the republic and the Roman people was echoed through the courts of the palace, and along the adjoining streets.

The French officers who were with the ambassador proposed to drive the insurgents from the jurisdiction of the palace by force; but the minister, judging that his authority would be sufficient to determine their departure, put on the insignia of his office, with the intention, as he spoke the Italian language, of addressing the multitude. His pacific intentions were prevented by a discharge of musketry, which proceeded from a party of cavalry, who, in traversing the jurisdiction of the palace, had fired on the insurgents in the court. The ambassador advanced between the insurgents and the military at a moment when a company of infantry were about to continue the fire, and, demanding by what authority they violated his jurisdiction, forced them to a momentary retreat. Returning to the insurgents in the court of the palace, who were advancing as the troops fell back, he menaced them with the sabres of the military who accompanied him, if they proceeded further. A second discharge from the pope's soldiers, which passed over the heads of the French, but killed those who were in the rear, led the ambassador to divide his small force, which consisted

consisted only of a few officers; and leaving some to restrain the multitude, he advanced with the generals Duphot and Sherlock to induce the soldiery to withdraw, promising that the insurgents should be delivered up and punished. The soldiers, regardless of his representations, continued to hold themselves in a menacing posture, and were about to make another discharge, which the general Duphot rushed forward to prevent. A scene of confusion ensued. The general, from his desire of avoiding further bloodshed, was drawn on amidst the soldiery, where he was wounded by a fusileer, who discharged the contents of his musket into his body, and afterwards treated him with circumstances of savage cruelty. The ambassador, and the officers who attended him, escaping the danger, and seeing another company enter the street at the opposite side, retreated through a bye street into the gardens of the palace, which were still encumbered by the insurgents, many of whom lay strewed around the court, and through the apartments, killed or wounded. Two hours had already passed in those scenes of disorder, and the ambassador continued to be besieged in his palace, when the minister of the grand-duke of Tuscany, traversing the lines of soldiery still in hostile array, entered the palace, while the Spanish minister sent to the secretary of state to protest against the horrors which were taking place, but of which he assured him (and probably with truth) the pope was altogether ignorant: and, indeed, no accusation whatever, either by the French minister, or those of the allies of the republic then at Rome, has been brought against the government on this occasion. It was neither the policy nor interest of the

court of Rome to have provoked to new hostilities; and it appears, from every concurrent testimony, that the violation of the jurisdiction of the ambassador, the murder of general Duphot, and whatever other illegal or violent acts were committed, were the result of negligence in the commander of Rome, who had sent troops to quell a riot of which the government was ignorant, without placing at their head such officers as should have known how to direct the soldiery in the execution of their orders, to urge or restrain their ardor against the seditious whom they had to disperse.

But whatever were the causes of this tumult, the consequences were such as to lead the ambassador to quit Rome and withdraw to Florence, which he did not effect without the warmest regrets, and the most pressing endeavours of the pontifical ministry to induce him to continue his residence. The secretary of state, cardinal Doria, accompanied the passports which he sent to the ambassador with letters to the papal minister at Paris; in which he enjoined him, in the name of the holy father and his own, to humble himself before the French directory, to solicit them to ask for the largest indemnifications, and assure them that tranquillity would be restored to the holy see only when due satisfaction should have been made. The letters which passed between the secretary of state and the French ambassador, previous to his departure, and the solicitations made to M. d'Azara, the Spanish minister, for his interposition and advice, are sufficient indications that this popular tumult could not be attributed to the partisans of the papal government; although the French minister, in the respectful and affectionate leave
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which he takes of the cardinal, glances at those irreconcilable enemies of the French republic who still directed the inner cabinet of the court of Rome.

But whoever might have been the immediate and intimate directors of the pope's conscience and counsels, however absurd their projected measures, however dire and immortal their hatred against the French republic, or those who espoused its cause, no motive sufficiently plausible, to arrest for a moment the attention of the bitterest foe to papal power, has been adduced, to give the slightest colour of probability to the conjecture that the government of Rome had any other share in this catastrophe than the culpable negligence, as has been already stated, of the commander of the military force at Rome. The occasion was, nevertheless, *too favourable to be neglected* by the French directory, who were apparently waiting to take advantage of the errors of the papal administration. The Cisalpine government, which still hovered around, hitherto restrained from darting at its prey, would have been the first to hurl the avenging thunder, had not the victim and the sacrifice been thought a prey worthy of directorial rapacity itself. Of its approaching dissolution the holy see felt the infallible symptoms; but, in order to deprecate the wrath of the French government, and ward off the fatal blow, after vain solicitations for the further mediation of its hitherto-constant friend in every adverse situation during a long and chequered reign, the Spanish minister, numerous couriers were tired in fruitless expeditions to Florence, Naples, and Vienna; heaven was assailed with prayers, fastings, pro-

cessions, and jubilees; Madonnas wept over their votaries; the theatres were shut up; new and numerous arrests of suspected persons were ordered to be made; and manifestoes, recriminating and exculpating, were published.

In contempt of these acts of government, satirical and menacing placards were posted on the walls by the rebellious party; and portraits of Buonaparte, under the shocking and impious title of the new Saviour of the World, were distributed amongst the people; so that Rome, for some time, presented little else than a scene on which was displayed the passions of parties, who, according to their fears or hopes, were deploring its papal decease, or rejoicing in its approaching republican resurrection.

Meanwhile, the French and Cisalpine armies were advancing towards Rome, under the command of general Berthier. The march was nothing more than a military procession; for no resistance could be offered where no authority existed to collect force, which, if collected, would probably have joined the invaders. The entrance of general Berthier into Rome was preceded by a proclamation, in which he declared that the only object of his visit was the punishment of the murderers of Duphot and Basseville, and that the people of Rome should find in the French army protectors and friends. The proclamation was misunderstood by neither party: and whilst the pope, and those more particularly attached to him, remained either stupefied or trembling in the apartments of the Vatican, the mob (in all probability prepared by French agency) assembled in the Campo Vaccino, under the direction of such as had taken the lead amongst the

the revolutionary party, and proclaimed the Roman republic, on the 15th of February, which was followed by the usual accompaniment of Republican revolution, the planting of the tree of liberty.

The pope, however, made one further effort against annihilation, by sending to Berthier, encamped without the walls of Rome, his cardinal vicar Somaglia, the cardinal Arrigoni, prince Giustiniani, and the Neapolitan minister Belmonti Pignatelli, to negotiate for the continuance of his temporal existence, by the further sacrifice of provinces and of millions, which were liberally offered at the present crisis. The general, refusing to admit any other deputation than that of the Roman people, dissipated the last illusion of the holy father; and this latter deputation having presented itself, to make known to him the revolution which had just been accomplished, as well as the provisional consular government which had been formed, invited him to accompany them, in solemn procession to the Capitol, to sanction the revolution by his presence, as representative of the French republic. The general, preceded by military music, and attended by his officers and detachments of foot and horse from his army, traversed Rome, amidst an immense crowd of people, gazing, for the most part, with anxious curiosity; uncertain whether the sound of liberty, which had lately been proclaimed by the people, would be re-echoed by the conqueror; or whether still further exactions, in order to atone for the faults of their late government, were to be the forerunners of a still more abject subjection.

The French general did not suffer them to remain long in this un-
1798.

certitude; having ascended to the capitol, he proclaimed the object of his mission, and the fate of Rome, in the following speech, in the French manner.

“Manès of Cato, of Pompey,
“and of Brutus; of Cicero, and of
“Hortensius; accept the homage
“of the French, become free, in
“the Capitol, where you have so
“often defended the rights of the
“people, and added new glories to
“the Roman republic!

“The descendants of the Gauls,
“with the olive in their hand, now
“repair to this august spot, to re-
“establish the altars of liberty,
“erected by the elder Brutus.

“And you, people of Rome,
“who have regained your lawful
“rights, call to remembrance the
“monuments of glory that sur-
“round you; resume your ancient
“greatness, and emulate the vir-
“tues of your ancestors.”

But although liberty was thus in words proclaimed, the provisional government, which the rebels had instituted, was laid aside by the French general, who assumed the supreme authority till the arrival of the French commissaries appointed by the directory to form a constitution, and a definitive government. A kind of provisional government had been instituted, composed of persons of different ranks and discordant opinions; such as cardinals, princes, lawyers, merchants, and peasants; but this heterogeneous body was but of short duration. Some organised system, however, was necessary, even under the *absolute* authority of a French general: the revolutionists, therefore, had recourse to their first plan; and an executive government was formed, under the denomination of a consulate, composed of six members,

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of which Rigauti, a lawyer of eminence, and a chief of the revolutionary party, was named president, and Bassal, a French priest, of equivocal character, and a terrorist-member of the national convention, was chosen secretary.

Although the arrival of the French army, and the proclamation of the French general at the Capitol, had given the mortal stroke to the papal authority, the members of the sacred college, who yet remained in Rome, whilst they beheld, from the windows of the Vatican, the people, in long and solemn procession, bearing the tree of liberty, which they were going to plant before the statue of Marcus Aurelius, attempted to avert the evil, and to form delusive plans for the continuation of the papal authority. Some of the cardinals, who had gained knowledge from the experience of others, and who had well-founded apprehensions of a revolutionary storm, had taken their prudent flight from Rome, whilst the means of flight were still in their power: such were the ex-secretary of state, cardinal Busca, and cardinal Albani, who had been the most active instruments of the courts of Rome and Vienna, against the French, previous to the peace of Tolentino; and who, till the fall of the papal power had been (it is said) the advisers of every violent and every perfidious measure. With these fled others of less note; such as the commander of the company, and the corporal who assassinated general Duphot; and, at some interval, the celebrated cardinal Maury, who, for his strenuous and persevering opposition to the confiscating spirit of the national assembly, had received the reward

due to his fidelity, in his elevation to the dignity of the purple. He had sheltered himself from the tempest in his diocese of Montefiascone, and peeped forth when he thought its fury was abated, only to take a further flight; which, with the courage and address so peculiar to himself, he effected in open day, although met on the road to Florence by the three French commissaries, then proceeding to Rome, by whom he was known, and by whom his person was respected.

The majority of the sacred college remained at Rome, stupified or afflicted, according to their various sensibilities, at the sudden ruin which had overwhelmed them. The fantastic farces of authority which they had enacted in the Vatican, under the bayonets of a triumphant invader, and the shouts of a revolted nation, were soon succeeded by profound sighs of regret, at the sudden disappearance of that enormous mass of splendor which eclipsed and dazzled all around them, and by tragic declamations at the fleeting vanities of the world and the uncertainty of all human enjoyments. But sighs and declamations were only the prologues to greater sufferings. These unhappy personages, to whom the theory of worldly evil was scarcely known, were fated to taste its reality in almost every bitter form that the harshness of revolutionary power could devise. The forbearance with which they were at first treated, after the formal abdication of their authority, was changed into a narrow system of inspection, which was speedily followed by acts of revolutionary rigour. The estates of those cardinals who had already taken their flight were

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confiscated, and the splendid and classic ornaments which enriched the Villa Albani became the prey of vulgar speculation. Amongst those who fled after the entrance of the French were some whose conduct deserved a better fate. In this number may be placed the cardinal Caprara, who, during the quarrel with France, had boldly manifested a constant opposition to the hostile measures of the papal cabinet; Antici, who had early entered his protest against the papal interference; and Gerdy, who threw off the purple with the same indifference as he received it, having preserved, amidst the general corruption, the pure manners and evangelical simplicity of the primitive church. The rest, whose presence either offended the newly-constituted authorities, or whose property invited the national confiscation, were confined as prisoners in one of the convents at Rome. A few, indeed, were allowed to plead the privilege of disease, and remained prisoners in their beds of sickness. Amongst the incarcerated cardinals, were Rezzonico della Sommaglia, the cardinal vicar, and Carandini, the persecuting prefect of Buon-Governo, and Mattei, the papal negotiator at Tolentino, whose repentance, wrought by Buonaparte, was repented of at the view of the desolation which had befallen the church, and whose active zeal, for what he deemed the honour of religion, had prompted him to declaim, in no measured terms, against the civic oath administered to the Roman citizens, which he officially represented as an impious act, heretical with respect to the church, and disloyal with respect to the state. These, and some others,

might have become the objects of national resentment, and, in the first fury of a revolution, some allowance might perhaps be made for a momentary retaliation of ill offices; but no excuse can be alleged for that indiscriminate vengeance which fell on all alike; on those who had been tolerant, as well as those who had been the most adverse to the rights of the people. The indulgent party was indeed but little numerous; nor could it be expected that much regard for equal rights lay concealed beneath the purple; but some respect and consideration were due to such men as Doria, whose virtues were the theme of the French minister's eulogium at the moment he escaped from Rome; the sagacious Archetti; Roverella, modest and unassuming; and Antonelli and Borgia, distinguished for their love of science and extensive knowledge. These unoffending, and, considering the difficult circumstances in which they were placed, meritorious personages, were confounded with those whom popular or revolutionary opinion deemed guilty; and the whole of the college that remained at Rome, with very few exceptions, were joined in one common proscription, which policy did not command, and which humanity, if not justice, must for ever reprobate.

It has been asserted that the rigour with which these venerable personages were treated was neither in the intention of the French government, nor of its principal agents. It is true that neither the French government nor its agents had any private animosities to satisfy, nor any personal injuries to avenge; and, it is possible, that, in many cases, these cardinals were the victims of particular rather than pub-

lic vengeance; but this will not absolve the conquerors before the tribunal of public opinion, in as much as they must be accounted, in a great measure, guilty of whatever evils they did not prevent, since the absolute power of preventing them lay in their hands. But this persecution has been resolved into other principles still less excusable than the former, of which the chief was the temptation to cruelty held out by avarice from the personal fortunes of these imprisoned princes of the church. They were sent from their prisons in Rome to Civit -Vecchia, and menaced with exile to some inhospitable transatlantic or hyperborean shore. This menace was not misunderstood. The greater part found means to procure their liberty by the sacrifice of their wealth; though there were some who felt too indignantly the persecution to make any compromise. The scandal of this persecution undoubtedly must ultimately rest on the French directory; a scandal so much the greater, as public justice, for such was the pretence, was put aside, without shame, by the greedy speculations of avarice. Revolutionary indignation, smarting under the remembrance of former wounds, if it condescends to vengeance, does not stoop to the baseness of pecuniary retaliation: but the history of most of the *late* revolutions of Europe must be stained with many a page at which the friend of liberty will blush, not more for the unnecessary rigour exercised by its pretended friends, than that sordid spirit of avarice which has marked the character and directed the conduct of some, whom accident, ra-

ther than the choice of the people, has raised to the most elevated station.

The cardinals, thus insulted and plundered, took advantage of the moment of their liberation to fly, under the guise of private citizens, from the land where their former glories and their present humiliation formed so melancholy a contrast. The Roman nobility, in general, bore with resignation the transition from rank and title to the state of private citizens*. Where no despotism had been exercised, and where no conspiracies were formed, there was no pretence for confiscation or plunder. The greater number of this privileged class submitted, without murmur, to every change, content in the continued possession of their revenues, which were however sometimes weakened by extraordinary contributions for the exigencies of the state: a few, more active, or more artful, took part in the revolution, and were named to the principal offices of the government; such were the prince Borghese, who became a member of the senate, and prince Giustiniani, who has since represented the Roman republic at Paris.

Whilst these changes were taking place in Rome, the pope remained confined to his apartments, in anxious and trembling uncertainty with respect to his fate. That of his nephews had been already decided. The cardinal Braschi, whose fortune chiefly consisted in the rich benefices conferred by the liberality of his uncle, shared the general proscription. On the elevation of the present pope to the pontifical dignity, the French ambassador at the court

* "When knaves grow great, and impious men bear sway,

"The place of honour is a private station."

of Rome, amongst other benefits resulting to the ecclesiastical state from his nomination, enumerated the extinction of that abuse of power in the popes, known by the name of nepotism. The late pope, Ganganelli, who had perhaps too large a portion of virtuous qualities for the station he filled, when his nephews were presented to him, told them, "that if they would labour for themselves he would give them his protection; and that if they were idle, he would send them back to their parents;" and Pius the sixth, at his accession, announced similar dispositions, when he refused the dignity of cardinal to his uncle, the respectable bishop of Imola, against whose nomination to that dignity no other obstacle presented itself but the delicacy of his nephew, the pontiff. This reserve, with respect to his family, was however but of short duration. His sister's children, for he had no nephews of the male line, became the objects of his particular affection. The youngest, who was raised by successive steps to the dignity of the purple, was first employed, after his academical education at Rome, in a dignified office with the cardinals Rohan and Rochefoucault, at Paris. Two years after (1780) he was created apostolical protonotary, a place which, though without profit, conferred a title and further dignity. This was succeeded by the office of majordomo of the pope, a place which infallibly led to that to which he was at length promoted (1786).

If the cardinal has been reproached for the sordid use which he sometimes made of his uncle's favour, and the influence of his situation, this reproach has fallen with tenfold justice on his brother, the duke of Braschi. His entrance into

public life, when he came to Rome from a distant province, where he had lived in comparative obscurity with his parents, was marked by numerous features of disgusting avarice. As he was not intended for the ecclesiastical state, he married the daughter of madame Falconieri, who, it is pretended (but without any proof), had been formerly the mistress of his uncle. This marriage, which, on the side of fortune, was slightly advantageous to the nephew, was the occasion of no small accumulation of wealth from the excessive liberality of the pope, of the catholic and Roman princes, of cardinals; and from presents received from individuals of almost every rank in the state. These marks of private courtesy served only to awaken a disposition for more solid property, and the public indignation was excited at the purchase made of the Jesuits' possessions at Tivoli, which then belonged to the apostolical chamber, and which, it is said, were sold to the duke for a sum less than half of that which had been already offered, and for which payment was to be made in the middle of the succeeding century. In this sale the public were slightly interested; what belonged to the apostolical chamber served but little towards the alleviation of the burdens of state; but the monopoly which the duke of Braschi made of oil and corn throughout the ecclesiastical territory, in contempt of the laws which had been enacted against such public spoliations, made him an object of abhorrence to the people.

The process of the niece of Amanzio-Lepri against the pope, for his illegal acquisition and detention of the fortunes of her family, will ever remain a dark spot

on the character of the holy father, though he endeavoured to wash it out by many a bitter repentant tear.

In addition to the Jesuits' estates at Tivoli, the duke of Braschi had purchased other possessions in its neighbourhood, from which he took the title of Nemi.

The draining of the Pontine marshes had been a new source of territorial wealth, and the riches of the nephew increased in nearly the same proportion as the miseries of the people. The revolution, whatever redress it might give to the latter, made a sudden and unrelenting sacrifice of the former. In a few days the duke of Braschi saw his honours reduced to the vain and empty decorations of his person, and his wealth to the contents of his purse, or port-folio. His estates were confiscated without remorse to the benefit of the public, and his magnificent and sumptuous furniture, his pictures, engravings, antiques, and his museum, underwent the humiliation of a public auction.

The public indignation, which was accumulated on the duke, struck but with a gentle hand the other branches of his household. His wife, the duchess of Nemi, produced her claims to the French commissaries, and obtained the half of the sum she demanded as her dowry, and also a third of the moveables for her daughter, with which she obtained the value of an equal sum for herself. She was permitted to retain possession of all her numerous and costly jewels, and from among the duke's twenty carriages was allowed to choose two of the most elegant. With the money she purchased national lands, and was enabled to retain her beautiful seat at Tivoli, where she continued to reside in peace.

The dethroned pontiff, fallen thus from his high state, became an object of interest and commiseration even to his enemies. Fancy can scarcely forbear painting him stalking through the splendid apartments of the Vatican, lately filled with a prostrate multitude, amidst whom he marched erect with proud and portly step, robed in his insignia of divinity, conscious still of his power in the invisible worlds, though his glory had been shorn of its beams; amidst these apartments, now deserted and silent, his mind perhaps meditated with astonished reflection on the chequered tissue of a long and eventful reign; and in those first moments of adverse fortune, when vanity drops her shield, searched, perhaps without indulgence, into the recesses of his heart, which in these trying moments could not but unveil itself before him. Yet united in history, as his name will possibly be with the extinction of the papal power (for even late events do not assure us of its re-establishment), and admitted as it must be that the errors of his reign, and the inconsistencies of his conduct, hastened that period, it must nevertheless be allowed, that had he possessed the concentrated wisdom and firmness of the most enlightened of his predecessors, the papal authority could not have been of long duration. Before his accession to the pontifical dignity, the axe had been laid to its root; and if wonder be excited at its overthrow, a slight reflection will convince us that this astonishment is misplaced, and that we ought rather to be surprised at the length of its continuance than the readiness of its fall.

The primary cause is undoubtedly the progress of knowledge, the steady foe both of religious and civil

civil despotism, and which, unlike that revolutionary fanaticism which borrows its name, and deals alike its fury on truth and error, makes even its enemies the instruments of good. In the list of secondary causes, the abolition of the order of the Jesuits holds a distinguished place. This order was the nobility of the papal monarchy, the pretorian guard of its spiritual despotism; and when Ganganelli signed the sentence of death to this formidable power, solicited and provoked by the catholic sovereigns of Europe, and with it that of his own, for he soon afterwards fell the victim of their vengeance, his penetrating spirit no doubt discovered that the temporal authority of the church could not long survive the destruction of its most zealous and systematic supporters.

The elevation of the present pope was the result of circumstances rather than of any deliberate plan, as has been represented, of restoring under his administration the discipline of the church, which had been too much relaxed under that of Ganganelli. His character and influence were too inconsiderable to mark him out as the restorer of its fading dignities, and his nomination, which at the opening of the conclave (14th of February, 1775) had been thought of by none, became, after a contest of four months, a compromise between the cardinals who protected the suppressed order of the Jesuits, and those who acted under the guidance of the catholic sovereigns. The opening of the reign of Pius the Sixth was marked by various acts of public justice and private benevolence; and the dissatisfaction which his nomination had given to the capricious people of Rome, who applied to him the famous distich

composed under the pontificate of Alexander the Sixth,

Semper sub Sextis perditâ Roma fuit,
which, though accomplished more fatally in his person than in most of his predecessors, for whom it was designated, seemed from the wisdom of his early administration to contain nothing of the spirit of prophecy. He had nevertheless a part to act more difficult than was commensurate with his abilities; and alternately influenced by the parties which divided the court of Rome with respect to the Jesuits, he often incurred the displeasure of both by his vacillations in their favour, and had the mortification of being charged with dissimulation and ingratitude, when his conduct was the result only of irresolution and weakness. Attached by principle to that proscribed order, it was with reluctance that he was compelled to enforce the rigorous edicts enacted against them; and his good offices were not withheld, when its members, flying from the bosom of the church, found protection and favour with the heretical and schismatic powers of the north, Frederic the Great, and the empress of Russia. The contest in which Pius the Sixth engaged with both these powers on the representations of the courts of France and Spain, respecting the settlement given to the Jesuits, and particularly with Catharine respecting the archbishoprick of Mohilow, where a college of the order was established, was followed by a more interesting and important discussion with his imperial majesty Joseph the Second. This emperor signified his accession to the throne by various reforms in the church, and displayed a spirit of innovation so hostile to its privileges, that, if it escaped the charge of heresy, it was too alarming

ing a symptom of radical error not to excite the most alarming apprehensions of the holy see. Hence the celebrated and fruitless journey of the pope to Vienna, and the vain and laborious efforts to correct that disposition to spiritual mutiny, which not only affected the emperor, but, at that and succeeding periods, the sovereign princes of Italy. The misunderstanding which took place with the duke of Tuscany respecting the schismatical innovations of the bishop of Pistoja was changed, by a succession of ill offices, into a violent quarrel, in which the grand-duke undertook to annihilate the spiritual power of the pope in his dominions, and counteract the supremacy in the hierarchy of the state. Still more serious were the discussions of the holy see with the court of Naples, when the restrictions put on the annual offering of the white palfrey, considered by the donor only as a devotional homage to the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, and by the holy father as a feudal tribute of a vassal for his crown to the holy see, was followed by a crowd of other innovations, such as the conversion of the revenues of suppressed monasteries into objects of public utility, the nomination to ecclesiastical dignities without the papal intervention, the entire abolition of the offering of the white horse, and other objects of civil and religious reform which reason might approve, whatever were the motives of the schism, but which were regarded at Rome as acts of heretical rebellion against the visible head of the church. The antisocial and uncompromising spirit of the Venetian aristocracy had, for a series of years, excited the alternate indulgence and resentment of the holy see. The immediate predecessors of the pope,

the wise Benedict, and the tolerant Ganganelli, could neither engage its affection nor conciliate its esteem. Imbued as it were habitually with a considerable portion of that schismatical spirit which infected most of the other catholic powers of Europe, the senate in the opening of the reign of Pius the Sixth, secularised a number of abbeys, and other religious establishments, and incorporated them with those belonging to the nobility. The pope menaced them with his apostolical anger, so far even as to talk seriously of forcing them, by the use of temporal arms, into obedience.— Though the quarrel was appeased by the intervention of part of the sacred college, the Venetian senate continued to suppress and reform conventual houses in favour of hospitals and other establishments of public charity, notwithstanding the murmurs of the holy father; and the dispute which was renewed between the Bark of St. Peter and the Bucentaur might have continued indefinitely if the revolutionary tempest had not driven them to perish together on the same rock.

Amidst this almost general defection of reverence and filial duty towards the church, which it was the fate of Pius the Sixth to witness, he had yet to console himself, that though most had been perverted by heresy, yet some remained untainted, or at least but slightly infected by its contagion, and were still docile to the voice of the church. The perseverance of the court of Spain, in common with others against the Jesuits, and its obstinacy in claiming the canonisation of Palafox, to which the Jesuistical party had opposed the farce of the beatification of the French beggar Labre at Rome, and the free maxims of its ecclesiastical government,

ment, had been sources of disquietude to Pius; but the habitual and reverential respect with which he had been treated by this power had softened his displeasure at these contrarieties, and conciliated his affection and esteem. The duke of Parma, unlike his brother sovereigns of Italy, had shown a devotedness without bounds to the holy see; and whilst his neighbour, the duke of Modena, suppressed the inquisition in his state, and, in defence of certain territorial rights, was preparing to arm against the pope, the duke of Parma re-established the holy office which his predecessor had abolished, and engaged to support its decisions with the terror of the secular arm, as the most effective mode, according to the edict he published on the occasion, to preserve his subjects from the poison of heresy and infidelity. With zeal for the unity of the faith, but not with the entire devotedness of the Infant of Parma, the queen of Portugal, on the death of Joseph the First, avenged the holy see for the daring innovations of the marquis de Pombal, by restoring the patriarchate of Lisbon to all its former splendor and profits, by re-establishing the religious houses which he had suppressed, and comforting those whose adherence to the church had been the cause of ministerial persecution. Thus, amidst the storms which gathered round almost every quarter around the holy see, whilst schisms with respect to ecclesiastical authority were increasing, and innovations, if not in matters of faith, in matters at least equally important to it, such as restraining the flow of devout offerings into the apostolical coffers, were multiplying with most alarming rapidity, Pius could turn aside from this turbulent ocean towards a

halcyon shore, and contemplate the horizon of Portugal decorated with the full glow of respectful beneficence towards him: whilst the fading attachment and calculating parsimony of the other catholic powers of Europe with respect to the court of Rome were evinced not only in the incroachments made in its ecclesiastical authority, but also in the restraint which they put on the benevolence of their respective subjects, her majesty, "faithful found among the faithless," re-established the inquisition, and, with pious precipitation, replenished the sacred chest of the Roman exchequer; sovereign and subjects vying with each other in acts of religious devotedness, and happy in bartering the perishable objects of earthly presents, against treasures unfading and incorruptible. This interchange of affectionate offices met now and then a temporary interruption. The royal assent was declared necessary for permission to take vows of monastic life. The regulation of 1799, compelling the nobility and clergy to support equally with the people the burdens of the state, was consecrated by a brief, though hostile to the privileges of the church; and the interposition of the holy see was disregarded, when the queen tore from the archbishop of Braga his seignorial rights, and stript the clergy of their temporal jurisdictions. These symptoms of disaffection were the effects of other symptoms more alarming, which the prince of Brasil at that time discovered, and which the reading of foreign books and journals had led him to cherish. Under his protection, learning, for the first time, half unveiled her face in the seat of education at Coimbra, and fanaticism shrunk with horror at the daring

daring themes which were made the subjects of public discussion; amongst which were the lawfulness of toleration with respect to religious opinions, that of empowering bishops to grant dispensations without the intervention of the court of Rome, and of resuming the donations made to the church, and making them subservient to the necessities of the state. The holy see was alarmed at the invasion of this hitherto tractable seminary by heretical doubts and hypotheses, such as these, but the triumph was short; the death of the innovator, or patron of the innovators, gave a further respite to the privileges of the church, and the French revolution, which took place at that period, rescued the pope from the dismembering gripe of his perverted and diseased children. The portentous principles which this revolution had established, and which menaced the destruction, not only of all ecclesiastical, but of almost every civil establishment, had indeed chased away, at this unfit moment, all the trivial bickerings and controversies, amongst the other catholic powers, respecting the exact landmarks of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and the boundaries of civil and spiritual privilege. Under the pressure of common danger and common calamity, these mutinous factions against papal authority were hushed into silence. The thunder of the church, so long the object of contempt and ridicule, and which had been laid by in the lumber of the Vatican as an useless and worn out weapon, was now invoked by these trembling princes who had been the foremost in encouraging the sneer against it. That false, destructive, and infamous philosophy, with which they had amused themselves in teasing

the holy father, had now started up, a formidable and gigantic spectre, in judgment against themselves. The successive events of the revolution have shown with what success the spiritual Jupiter wielded his burlesque artillery. Happy for him had he looked with more indifference on the civil struggle, or contented himself with darting forth his ecclesiastical fulminations. But such was not the conduct of Pius VI. His life had been a continued struggle against the philosophical rebellion of princes; and he has lived to witness their punishment and repentance. He opposed them with perseverance whilst they were apostates, and perished at length in fighting for their cause.

But although the fall of the papal power would probably have been effected without the intervention of the French revolution, from the natural progress of knowledge, it is not unworthy of observation, that whilst those powers, which hitherto had been the avowed supporters of papal pretensions against the spread of heresy and schism, had become rebellious against papal rights, consecrated by sacred prescription, and, in some cases, menaced even the personal authority of the pontiff, the schismatic princes of the North affected to treat the holy see with unequivocal marks of deference and distinction. Frederic the Great, and Catharine, regarding the pope less as a fallen and vanquished enemy than as a respectable relic of a worn-out superstition, sometimes amused themselves by the singularity of affectionate correspondence and the interchange of benevolent offices with the holy father. The king of Poland had bowed with resignation, when the code of the enlightened Zamoiski, restraining the jurisdiction

tion of the papal see, and abridging the privileges of the clergy and the monastic orders, had met the indignation of the pontiff, and, through the ecclesiastical influence, the refusal of the diet. Gustavus III. had published an edict, giving full toleration to the catholics of Sweden, and had paid his respects to the holy father in the seat of spiritual empire; and the stern independents of the other hemisphere, every way remote from the modern Babylon, had solicited and obtained, through the organ of congress, a consecrated primate for the catholic part of their community.

Nor is it less remarkable, that whilst the papal throne was besieged by the catholic, and abetted and comforted by the protestant powers, the Gallican church, the eldest daughter of the civil establishments of the Christian faith, should have been, through a long pontificate, the most affectionate in its attachment to the holy see. No affair of importance since that of the suppression of the Jesuits had occurred to awaken any cause of dispute, and though the pope might have continued to reflect with displeasure on the inflexible perseverance of the cabinet of Versailles, under the administration of Choiseul, who took the lead in the destruction of that order, the forbearance of the French court, in not forming a common cause in the reclamation of the catholic powers, was considered by the papal cabinet as a mark of friendship and attachment. The court of Versailles had, indeed, left the administration of its ecclesiastical affairs to its ambassador, the cardinal Bernis, who, uniting with the character of the accomplished courtier as much of the spirit of the priesthood as was necessary to support the interest and dignity of

his order, smoothed the little asperities that sometimes arose in the way of his negotiations by the ascendancy which he had acquired over both parties.

The spirit of inquiry, which had hitherto been directed against the arrogant usurpations of the court of Rome, and which had stripped off the veil of hypocrisy and superstition, under which it had been so long concealed, now turned its penetrating eye from the fall of religious tyranny to other prospects, where the interference of civil despotism in favour of liberty promised it new and abundant harvests. The struggle which the Americans were then making for their independence had excited the attention of the active and inquisitive part of France, the ambition of the court coincided with their views, the force of the nation was employed to realize their boldest speculations, and homilies against the court of Rome were now thrown by, as worn-out subjects. The affair of the cardinal of Rohan was the first interruption of this state of tranquillity; the pope beheld his arrest by the civil power as a sacrilegious attack on the existence even of the church; whilst the parliament of Paris, supported by the court, affected equal astonishment that a foreign power should presume to interfere in its temporal concerns. In vain did the pope issue a brief to command the appearance of the culprit before a competent tribunal, and menace him with the most dread effects of ecclesiastical censure, for having committed the dignity of the purple in appealing, as the cardinal had done, to a temporal court of justice: the parliament, as guardian of the liberties of the Gallican church, persisted in its refusal, and

and the brief was thrown by unnoticed. The acquittal of the cardinal prevented any further discussion between the courts of Versailles and Rome; but enough had been done to awaken new ideas, and give form and substance to the principles which had been already widely propagated. The scandalous adventure of the necklace, equally degrading, perhaps, to royal and ecclesiastical dignity, was studiously cherished as the subject of seditious animadversion, and produced, more than multiplied acts of despotism, that general disaffection and contempt which are the sure forerunners of the fall of powers whose force is built solely on opinion.

The attachment which the French government displayed towards the court of Rome was less the result of pious affection than of personal interest. The abuses of the church were received as undisputed axioms among all ranks, and no country in Europe contained a community more enlightened in this point than France had been for half a century past. Amidst the higher classes, even those who immediately formed the government, the same conviction had been admitted; but they had prudently considered that the abuse was a better preservation of their authority than the correction might prove, and therefore, during the reign of the predecessor of Louis XVI. had resisted every kind of innovation which might weaken the long-established coalition of the throne and the altar. The same principles prevailed under the last monarch, who, from sentiments of piety, displayed that affection towards the clergy which his predecessor had shown from more interested motives; and the clergy formed, as it were, a body-guard around his person, and gave

their support to the throne in return for the protection which it granted to their privileges. Strong in this union, many of the high clergy, amongst whom a portion of the spirit of infidelity had insinuated itself, began to look on a slight reform of abuses as an object which might contribute rather to strengthen than diminish their own power; since the reform which they meditated was not that of their own abuses, but those of the holy see. Whilst they acknowledged the centre of unity, they were anxious to acquire a greater share of independence, and deemed themselves competent to the administration of objects wholly of a spiritual nature, and for which exclusive application had hitherto been made to the head of the church. They admitted the enormous abuses of the monastic state, and desired a moderate diminution both of the numbers and riches of the various orders. These, and other matters of ecclesiastical reform, were introduced as objects of discussion in a periodical meeting of the clergy in 1787, assembled for the purpose of granting their share of contribution to the state; and a disposition for carrying this reform into execution was openly avowed.

The holy see beheld with alarm this inclination to apostacy in the French clergy, but was dissuaded from taking any authoritative steps by the conviction that it would at least be useless. The French government began by suppressing the order of the Celestines in France, and, without communication with the court of Rome, seized on the estates of those of the same order, who, living under the Roman jurisdiction at Avignon, had property in the French territory. To these attacks, the first indications of alienated

alienated friendship, the pope was extremely sensible; and the edict, which took place at the same epoch, in favour of the protestants, occasioned him still greater affliction. He was comforted indeed in perceiving that the edict contained little else than granting the protestants a civil existence, and legitimating their children; and, although he felt, with the sacred college, the danger that might result from this precedent of toleration, confined as it was in the edict which had been promulgated, he not only combated the violent measures which were suggested by the college, but his prudence led him to mourn over the impending calamities of the church in silence.

The concessions which the French clergy had made to the spirit of the times were insufficient to satisfy the encroaching requisitions of the sectaries of reformation, and too great not to encourage them to attempt new conquests. The speculative advances which had been made towards a system of revolution in France had been too long indulged to leave unembodied or in embryo the projects which had been conceived; and the abuses which had been held forth by the clergy, as objects of reform, served as beacons to more hardy adventurers to attempt a wider range of discovery. The situation of the finances of France having led the government to assemble first the notables, and afterwards the states-general, to devise means for preserving the due balance between the receipt and expenditure of the state, one of the first abuses which was corrected, and which the court had previously resolved to sacrifice, was the payment of ecclesiastical tribute to Rome. The retrenchment of the sum which entered

into the pontifical treasury from France, for bulls, dispensations, and other objects of spiritual traffic, was too inconsiderable for the purposes of œconomy, as it amounted annually, on an average, to no more than 18,000*l.* sterling; but the suppression wore sufficiently the symptom of hostilities to convince the holy see that its alliance with that country hung on too feeble a thread to secure a long duration. The unjust decree of the national assembly, at the close of the year 1789, declaring the church estates to be national property, filled the court of Rome with general consternation. Although the paternal apprehensions of the holy see for the honour and security of the church were duly awakened, yet they had not even suggested that a measure so bold and subversive of its rights could have been attempted; but no redress could be hoped from remonstrance, since those made by the cardinal ambassador, hitherto for offences of infinitely less importance, had been made in vain. The pope, therefore, restrained his indignation at this heretical contempt of his spiritual authority; nor was his sorrow at this apostacy expressed in louder terms than sighs and murmurs, till his temporal possessions of the comtat Venaissin and Avignon fell under the eye of this confiscating assembly. It was not without resistance that this invasion was beheld by the court of Rome. Briefs and bulls were put in opposition to revolutionary motions and national decrees. The partisans of the pope, and those who espoused the cause of the French revolution, maintained their respective opinions with obstinate inveteracy; and the country, which was the object of contest, became for some time the theatre of civil and bloody contention.

tention. The revolutionists of Avignon at length gained the ascendancy; and, after dethroning the archbishop, and disbanding the clergy for refusing to take the civic oath, they deposed the pope from his sovereignty, seized his revenues, and Avignon, and the whole of the papal territory in France, was converted into republican departments.

The seizure of the papal possessions (although such events had taken place at other periods, the right of sovereignty having at all times been a subject of contention), and their formal incorporation, were regarded, and with reason, as a measure of national hostility. The court of Rome, at that period, had no other means of resisting the aggression than by the use of the spiritual warfare of anathemas and exhortations. The first victim of papal wrath was Talleyrand Perigord, the bishop of Autun, who was formally suspended by a brief, with the threat of excommunication at the end of forty days, if he did not take advantage of the proffered delay for repentance; Lomenie, the archbishop of Sens, was likewise degraded from his dignity of cardinal, for adhering to the civil constitution of the clergy, though he had attempted to ward off this disgrace by a previous and voluntary resignation. The flight of Louis XVI. to the frontiers was celebrated by festivals and rejoicings, and the illusion was sufficiently prolonged to give time for the expedition of a brief to the nuncio at Brussels, to congratulate the king on his escape, with prayers for his speedy and triumphant return to his kingdom. These, and other insulated marks of hatred against the principles of the French revolution, were followed by prosecutions against such as were

suspected of any attachment to its cause. Several officers, natives of France, but employed in the pope's service, were degraded, and sent to the galleys, for having discovered sentiments favorable to the interests of their country; and a kind of proscription was begun against every thing that bore the name or title of Frenchman; which was suspended at that period only by the interference of the executive council of the French republic (for the monarchy had just then been abolished), which menaced hostilities, if redress were not immediately obtained.

The decree of a premature attack had incited the court of Rome to measures of lenity and prudence; but as the manifesto of the coalised powers had at that period sounded the trump of extermination, the pope begun also to prepare for the general attack which was about to be made on the French republic. These military preparations would have been treated by the French with contempt, had not the influence which the court of Rome still held over the mind of the superstitious part of Europe, yet a numerous host, rendered it no contemptible enemy. The murder of the French ambassador Basseville, at Rome, which, from the gentleness of the reproof against the crime, the holy father called an excess that had deranged the public tranquillity, constituted the Roman government an abettor, if not the author, of the deed, completed the rupture which a series of ill offices on either side had been long preparing. The holy father no longer delayed his manifesto, in which he ordered a general armament, and traced the means of hostility, recommending the extermination of an enemy, without faith or

or law, by all public means—barbarians who had sworn to overturn wherever they went both thrones and altars; offering at the same time amnesty and absolution to criminals who should take up arms for the church and state, excepting none from the general rising in mass, but children, old men, and priests, who, to use the language of the manifesto, were to raise up their hands on the mountain, whilst the faithful fought in the plain. The language of this manifesto, which neither breathes the purest sentiments of Christian charity, nor is in perfect accord with the commonly received law of nations, may, perhaps, admit of some extenuation from the circumstances in which it was written, since France was, at that period, the theatre of revolutionary government; and the style of his holiness has since been closely imitated, not more by the disaffected, than by the indignant friends of liberty of every class in Europe.

But whether the change of system in France, on the fall of the reign of terror, operated a change in the sentiments of his holiness, or whether that conversion was effected by the success and progress of the republican armies, the pope softened his warlike breathings into certain acts of kindness towards individuals of the French republic, who had been pursued by Neapolitan frigates, and were shipwrecked on the coast, and took occasion from that circumstance to declare that he was at war with no country. This disposition to neutrality arose, probably, not from any diminution in the hatred of the holy see towards France, nor from any unwillingness to see the whole system of its government crushed, with all its supporters; it was natural

that such should be the sentiments of every despotic prince, much more of him whose double empire was then tottering from its base in consequence of the progress of French arms and French principles. This pacific change was occasioned by internal dissensions, which required all the force and vigilance of government, and more so by the state of penury to which the treasury was reduced, from the wretched administration of the finances, which, at the close of the year 1795, when no hostile foot yet trod the soil of Italy, had fallen upon the expedient of forced loans and forced paper-money, subversive of national credit at all times, and current only when beginning or labouring through revolutions.

The pope, in declaring himself neutral, had certainly chosen the wiser and safer part; and it is highly probable, that when Buonaparte, in the spring of the following year, poured down his legions from the Alps into the plains of Lombardy, he would have attempted to have softened still further the enmity of the holy see, and made not altogether an useless ally, at least for some time, of the court of Rome, to the French republic. But this steadfast resolution of neutrality was shaken, when the pope gave permission, and directed the march of the Neapolitan cavalry, then hastening in vain to stop the torrent of republican victory. The consequence of this aggression was the loss of the provinces of Ancona, of the Bolognese, and Ferrara, the sacrifice of paintings, statues, and of contributions of money, which not only aggravated the public distresses and discontents, but hastened, by a series of still greater imprudences, the destruction of the papal throne and government.

We have now attained, by means of this epifodical narration, the period when the French and papal governments came into cloſer contact; and of which the hiſtorical ſketch, ſo far as relates to external affairs, is given in our preceding chapters. Whether the conduct of the pope, under the circumſtances in which he was placed, during the different phaſes of the French revolution, and the prejudices with which he was imbued, prejudices natural to his rank and ſtation, merited the chaſtiſement which he received on the firſt irruption of the French into Italy? or whether it would not have been more politic to have retaliated his injuries by forbearance? are queſtions which we ſhall leave to the diſcretion of the reader. Whatever diſpoſition there might have been in Buonaparte to humble the pontiff, his language and his conduct were precise with reſpect to the preſervation of the papal government, though, by his exactions, he had diminiſhed the ſplendor of the pontifical throne and aggravated the burdens of the people. The prudence of the chevalier Azara, and his intimacy with the holy father, had led him alſo to concur in propping up this venerable edifice, which, though rotten at the foundation, and ſometimes beaten by domeſtic tempeſts, might, with care, have been preſerved till a later period from final diſſolution. The clemency or policy of the conqueror had ſpared it when the French armies were for the ſecond time (January 1797) at the gates of Rome. The alliance with the emperor whiſt an armiſtice had been granted, the conditions of which were not fulfilled, and whiſt a treaty of peace was negotiating, and the march of the papal troops, diſciplined by ſpiri-

tual exerciſes, and whoſe courage was propped up by the diſplay of fanatical labarums againſt the French army, were cauſes for the laſt diſplay of the conqueror's reſentment, who had become, by various means, the maſter of whatever conditions he thought proper to impoſe. Whether the attempt to quell a ſedition, excited by no particular act of tyranny in the government, and of which the French embaſſador had previously declared his abhorrence and determination to puniſh the authors, if any ſuch came within his juriſdiction; a tumult of no dangerous completion, and which, but for the imprudence of thoſe who were ſent to ſuppreſs it, would have ſunk into ſilence—whether the unfortunate catastrophe which beſel the French general Duphot, and which was owing probably to his generous impetuofity, anxious to prevent bloodſhed, or to the miſtake of the papal foldiery, who miſtook him for an aſſailant—whether this unforeſeen and melancholy event, the immediate cauſe of the diſſolution of the ſtate, in which the government was no way concerned, and againſt which nothing but negligence has been imputed, can have juſtified meaſures of ſuch ſeverity, or not, we believe, will admit of little diſcuſſion with thoſe who are at once the friends of liberty and of juſtice. The government had indeed fallen into contempt and debility, with ſcarcely ſufficient force to keep up the internal police. Had the French, in thoſe latter days, withdrawn their protection, the papal power, no doubt, was too circumſcribed to admit of long reſiſtance againſt the leaſt warlike incuſion of its neighbours; and the exiſtence of ſuch a government was no doubt in contradiction to the

the directorial system of proselytizing and forming republics. The operations of the French government in Italy were at that time no longer subjected to the advice or modifications of Buonaparte; and the empty glory of erecting the Gallic standard on the Capitol bore down all other considerations.

The presence of the holy father in Rome was judged by the French commissaries incompatible with the tranquillity of the state. Hated, during the latter part of his reign, by his subjects, for multiplied errors of conduct, both public and private; despised for the puerile vanity which he betrayed on every occasion, with respect to his own person; detested for his protection towards his nephews, who, they alleged, had become the legalised plunderers of the state; and fatiguing the whole world by the continuation of the involuntary trime of existing far beyond the longest period allotted to his predecessors by impatient ambition and capricious love of change, Pius, tumbled from his throne, became an object of interest and compassion even to those who had voted with most energy and perseverance for his fall. His first residence, after leaving Rome, was at Sienna, in the convent of St. Barba. An earthquake which overthrew the edifices adjoining to that in which he resided, and damaged his own, led him to take up his abode without the walls of the city. From this place he removed to the Chartruse, situated two miles from Florence. There he held, but with greater circumspection than at Sienna, his little court; and, fearful of giving umbrage either to the French or Tuscan governments, he offered to leave the nomination and regulation of his household to the

inspection of the French minister. It was scarcely possible for papal humility to descend farther. The revolution has often presented strange and singular circumstances. Whether it was merely by chance or design, the officer, it is said, who was charged by general Cervoni to notify to the pope the decree of the French commissaries, that he should leave Rome, was a general of the name of Calvin; and M. Rheinart, the French minister at the court of Tuscany, under whose controul the pope submitted to place himself, was a protestant divine of the Lutheran persuasion. But, strip of his temporal dignity, his Holiness presented an example of Christian-like resignation. His retreat was cheered, indeed, by such solid proofs of friendship from wealthy and faithful sons of the church, as left him scarcely to regret the luxury of Roman delicacies, to which he was far from being insensible; and witty malignity has presented us with anecdotes of secret indulgences of the holy father, which, if they diminish somewhat of that habitual reverence which we attach to the sanctity of his character, present him under a point of view perhaps more amiable, and more engaging to the social affections. Disburdened of the weight of his dignities, he seemed to have become lighter of heart, and no longer embarrassed with the care of office, his health became more stable, his spirits increased; and making a compromise with his former habits and passions, diminished, or rather mellowed by age and disappointment, he seemed to enjoy rather than lament his misfortunes, and embraced adversity as the handmaid of happiness.

The nomination of Pius the

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Sixth

Sixth to the pontifical throne was the effect of no previous arrangement, but rather a *mezzo-termini*, or compromise between the contending parties, as being the personage the least obnoxious to either. It is not therefore wonderful, that, with moderation and talents far beneath those of his predecessor, he did not correct or weather the storm in which the bark of St. Peter would have sunk with a pilot much abler than himself. The harmless vanity of the pontiff, in the studious display of his personal attractions, may excite a smile; but, though vain glory often led him to the commission of acts which have been regarded by the devout with pity, and by the profane with contempt, every lover of the arts will pay him the tribute justly due to his zeal for the protection which he gave them, more particularly in ornamenting and enriching the celebrated museum of the Vatican. The industry with which he applied himself to works which might be deemed of public utility entitled him also to respect; but, unfortunately for the public purse, that industry was often ill directed; and his favourite plan of draining the Pontine marshes, the great object of persevering enthusiasm, and for which he has been so much applauded, ended in little else than wasting the public money, restoring the Appian Way, and enriching his own family, already grown a burden to the people. Possessed of many estimable qualities as a private man, he had few of those talents which are necessary to govern in times of difficulty or danger. Yielding often to the impulse of the moment, the impetuosity of his character led him into errors which were followed by speedy repentance; presumptuous

with respect to his own opinion, he was blind to the future, where men of common sagacity had the clearest foresight; and, filled with ideas of the importance and dignity of his character, he prepared for himself numerous mortifications and insults, which he had neither the address to avoid, nor the power to avenge. As the visible head of the church, his attention to the duties of his office was uniform and exemplary; he has been reproached with making some of those duties subservient to his personal vanity, and with being fonder of public exhibitions than became the gravity and sanctity of his character: this charge may not be altogether unfounded, but it may be alleged, in his justification, that the relaxation of his predecessor, with respect to the ceremonials of worship, was a dangerous departure from the political usages of the church; and that a religious system, which had been established for ages, in defiance of reason and scripture, would soon lose its influence, especially at this season, if its theatrical pomp and ornament did not continue to dazzle the eye of vulgar inquiry.

Whatever were the failings of Pius the Sixth, or the vices of his administration, every compassionate mind will regard his misfortunes with sympathy and respect. His piety, though ostentatious, was devoid of hypocrisy, and his errors belonged to a situation which had ever been at war with truth. But he had scarcely begun to feel the blessings of retirement, which seemed a desirable haven after the rude storms through which he had passed, when the capricious tyranny of the French directory again invaded his repose. Under pretence that his presence, so near the seat
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of ancient government, would probably endanger the tranquillity, or impede the regeneration of Italy, the French government enjoined the grand-duke to dismiss him from the Tuscan territory. The grand-duke, in obedience to the reiterated and angry injunction, complied with a feeling of reluctance; and application was made to the emperor to grant him an asylum in Germany. This plan having been deranged, it was proposed to send him to Spain; but the prudence of the court outbalanced its piety. A voyage to the island of Sardinia, where the danger of papal conspiracy would have been circumscribed, and where little other intercourse than the pious exchange of filial vows and apostolic benedictions would take place, had been decided on, when the state of the pope's health rendered his removal impossible. This malady disarmed the zealous malignity of the directory, nor did the return of health awaken it to new suspicions; and the pope continued to reside at the Chartreuse, till events, the history of which belongs to another period, occasioned his removal into France.

It would be also to anticipate the order of the narration of the year to detail the changes which took place in the Roman republic on the overthrow of the papal government, if these changes were not interwoven with the occurrences already related. Although the temporal power of the pope was destroyed, and his kingdom was no longer of this world, his spiritual authority continued to be recognised; and his functions were performed by a bishop, who, under the name of vice-gerent, dispensed to the faithful the sacred gifts according to their several de-

fires and necessities. Various were the regulations made by this representative of the pontiff, who, whilst he administered in holy things, with all the pomp and circumstance of his prototype, corrected various abuses of a spiritual nature, amongst which were the fasts and festivals in the church, the number of which were considerably diminished throughout the republic.

The temporal power intrusted by the French general to the provisional government was at length confirmed by a regular constitution, made at Paris on the model of the French; but in which the names of consuls, senate, tribunes, questors, and other titles of classic story, superseded the French denominations of directory, ministers, and councils. This constitution was judged to be an improvement on its original, and pretended to be a model for future reform in its turn; but as the restoration of liberty to Rome was no evidence that its new citizens knew either how to appreciate or preserve it, the last clause enacts, that, for the space of ten years, the French commander should have the veto in the formation of laws, with other attributes, which though unacknowledged in the code of the rights of man or of nations, were judged necessary infringements by the French government.

The palace on the Quirinal-hill, hitherto the summer residence of the pontiff, became the seat of consular dignity. The Vatican, from whose tremendous portals had burst forth those spiritual thunders which in remoter times had shook the world, opened its rich and various treasures of literature, here only the unavailing antidote to superstition; and the members of a

national institute, by whom it was now inhabited, formed a contrast with the pomp and luxury of its late possessors. The inquisition, and other monuments of spiritual despotism, which had long survived the spirit which gave them birth, perished, of course, in the revolution. One alone was preserved; not that it merited less the animadversion of the reformers, but because its abolition in the penurious state of the Roman revenue would have been impolitic; and, as far as it was connected with the fortunes of private individuals, unjust. The office is that from which briefs or bulls, for benefices, were dispensed; and which brought annually into the Roman treasury a clear benefit of from eighty to one hundred thousand pounds sterling. These expeditions were continued with respect to Spain, in the name of the pope, agreeably to an arrangement made by the Spanish minister with the Roman government; and the same steps were taken by other catholic powers for such objects as necessitated the interference of the spiritual authority of the church. The temporal establishments, particularly two banks; one for private loans or pledges, and the other for discounts, were preserved; but the credit of both, excellent in their institution, had been nearly ruined by the prodigality of the former government.

Of such disorders in the public finances, the revolution could only increase the weight. Confiscation of incorporate property, such as the domains belonging to the apostolic chamber, and orders of religious communities, which it was found expedient to suppress, and which the dispersion of the crowd of monks who had flocked to Rome from various quarters of

Europe gave the means of executing without violence or terror, yielded certain resources. But, as almost every source of public wealth was dried up from the lavish prodigality of the former government and the repeated and unjust exactions of the French, and the country had been delivered up to that kind of legalised plunder, known under the name of *requisitions*, which the necessities or rapacity of the victorious armies led them to impose; as the churches had already been spoiled of a considerable part of their valuable ornaments, and the rich had been laid under heavy contributions; as public credit, which was fast hastening to decay, from the shocks which it had endured under the former government, had received a fatal blow from the last occurrences; and the paper-currency of the state, which had hitherto kept up the circulation, had no other standard for its value than the avarice of stock-jobbers; and, as the pressing wants of the state (amongst which were wants that could not be adjourned, such as the supply of subsistence for Rome, which had always been a primary object of public attention) demanded new sacrifices, the government was compelled to have recourse to arbitrary measures, such as levying exorbitant taxes on the rich, who had been already exhausted—measures eventually ruinous to the mass of the people, and subversive of the spirit of liberty, but which, they pleaded, the exigencies of the moment forced them to adopt.

With this accumulation of difficulties, the Roman republic had to struggle in the first moments of its birth; difficulties which the French government might have considerably

ably diminished, had not other considerations, than those of establishing liberty, influenced the leading members of its executive power. The overthrow of the papal government was a measure loudly demanded, not only by the voice of reason, but by the rulers of almost every catholic country in Europe, to whom the papal yoke had become insupportable. But the passage from the ruins of that corrupted mass of superstitious des-

potism, to the erection of a free republic, founded on the basis of public virtue, is an enterprise of difficult execution. Unfortunately too the Roman government was instituted under the patronage of a directory equally unprincipled and impolitic. It was therefore formed for ruin; and, in our succeeding volume, we shall probably have to record its fall, and the partial and temporary restoration of the papal power.

CHAP. XIV.

Affairs of Switzerland. Disputes with the French Directory. Insurrection in the Pays-de-Vaud. Interference of the French. March of General Menard. Revolution in the Pays-de-Vaud. Negotiations between the Government of Berne and the French Directory. Seditious Movements in the Bernese Territory. Insurgents of Aarau dispersed. Fresh Negotiations. Swiss prepare for Defence. Castle of Dornach taken by the French. Soléure and Fribourg taken. Action between General d'Erlach and the French. D'Erlach completely defeated, and killed by his own People. Surrender of Berne. Submission of all Switzerland. Revolution there. Helvetic Republic founded. Protracted Preparations for the Invasion of England. Plan of founding a Colony in Egypt. Expedition of Buonaparte. Surrender of Malta to the French. Buonaparte arrives at Alexandria. That Place taken by Storm. Rosetta, &c. taken. Cairo taken. Battle of the Pyramids. Battle of the Nile, and Defeat of the French Fleet by Admiral Nelson. Reflections on the Expedition of Buonaparte. Proceedings of the French Legislature. Election of the new Third. Election of a new Director. Reflections on the present State of France.

IN a preceding chapter it will be perceived, that the next victim marked out by the ambition and rapacity of the French Directory was the Helvetic confederacy. That the aristocracies of Switzerland had been wholly blameless, either in their conduct towards their own people, or towards the French, is an assertion which an honest historian will scarcely venture to make. But if the power of the state, and its very moderate emoluments, were in some, or, perhaps, the majority of the cantons,

monopolised by a few families, it must still be remembered that authority was exercised with exemplary moderation, the people were contented and happy; and if, on certain occasions, the jealousy of French principles, or the influence of a powerful neighbour, had induced the governors of some of those republics to treat with less respect than ordinary the agents of France, this was a proper subject for negotiation, and not for war. The French Directory, however, had other views: the conduct

which they had pursued towards Venice, Genoa, and Rome, was now matured into a system. With them war, the last resort of human resentment, the worst of human calamities, was become a trade; and the unoccupied legions of France were to levy a subsistence on their defenceless neighbours. Among the obnoxious discussions which were agitated in the councils, previous to the revolution of the 4th of September, it will be remembered, that this system of aggression towards the neutral powers held a conspicuous place: such a discussion, it is believed, more than any other, heightened the apprehensions of the directory, and even of Buonaparte himself, and hastened the event of that atrocious day.

The directory, confirmed in power, and relieved from the controul of a popular legislature *, hastened, towards the close of the year 1797, to put in force their project of subjugating the Swiss republics. The first hostile movement on the part of the French was to take possession of the Helvetic part of the bishoprick of Basle, under some frivolous pretence, and contrary to an express treaty concluded with the Swiss in the year 1792. Either too weak or too prudent to resent this infraction of their rights, the Helvetic body still flattered themselves with an amicable termination of their difference with France; when an insurrection, which broke out in the *Pays-de-Vaud*, probably through French instigation, or at least through the influence of French principles, afforded a fuller pretext for the overthrow of the government. In the month of December, the French directory

thought proper to interfere in this domestic dispute, and demanded from the government of Berne what they termed the restoration of the rights of that people, and the assembling of the states of the *Pays-de-Vaud* in their ancient form: this demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms; and general Menard was ordered to march, with a body of 15,000 men, to support the claims of the petitioning party in the *Pays-de-Vaud*. The designs of the French were for the moment frustrated by the timidity or generosity of the supreme council of Berne. On the 5th of January, 1798, they issued a proclamation, enjoining the citizens of the *Pays-de-Vaud* to assemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed immediately to the reform of every abuse in the government, and to assert and re-establish all their ancient rights. A commission had been previously appointed at Lausanne, for determining on the claims of the petitioners, and re-instating the country in its former tranquillity. From what causes it happened we have not as yet been correctly informed, but the proceedings of the commission seemed involved altogether in embarrassment and delay. The people became impatient, and the insurrection at once broke out into actual hostility. The castle of Chillon was seized by the insurgents; and the commotions which took place in the southern districts of the province appeared not less formidable. The government of Berne now determined to reduce the insurgents by force; and a body of 20,000 troops, under the command of colonel Weiss, was dispatched to dis-

* M. Mallet du Pan asserts, that it was through the influence of Carnot and Barthélemy that the blow meditated against Switzerland had hitherto been averted.

perse them. Whether the lenient measures pursued by this general were consistent with sound policy or not, it is impossible, from the materials which have hitherto fallen under our inspection, to determine. Suffice it to say, that though it is not certain that more precipitate movements would have saved the country, yet his inactivity undoubtedly served to increase at once the power and the audacity of the insurgents. Thus situated, the approach of the French, under the command of Menard, decided the contest. On passing the boundary, Menard dispatched an aide-de-camp, attended by two hussars, to general Weifs, at Yverdun: on their return, a fatal affray took place at the village of Thierens, in which one of the hussars was killed. Who were the aggressors in this unfortunate business is not correctly ascertained, but it was regarded by Menard as a declaration of war. His troops immediately advanced, while those of Weifs retreated; and the whole of the Pays-de-Vaud was by the beginning of February, in the possession of the French.

The government of Berne still hoped, it appears, to avert the destruction which now seemed to await them: the centinels who had killed the hussar at Thierens were delivered up, and fresh negotiations were entered upon. In the mean time, however, new insurrections were planned in different parts, and the revolutionary mania appeared to increase. In the seditious assemblages on these occasions, the French envoy, Mengaud, was observed to take a decided part; and, on the 2d of January, he formally reclaimed some persons who had been arrested for treasonable practices by the government of Berne, as the friends and allies of the

French republic. To this reclamation the government of Berne paid little attention; and the standard of revolt having been erected at Arau, they determined on effective measures for its suppression and their own defence. The Argovian militia marched to Arau; the town and province were immediately reduced, and the leaders of the insurrection were taken into custody.

War now appeared inevitable: to conciliate the minds of the people, and induce them more freely to lend their assistance, the government of Berne decreed, that fifty-two deputies from the principal towns and communes should be added to the supreme council; and, on the 2d of February, these new deputies took their seats. A general reform of all the abuses of the government was the first resolution agreed upon in their deliberations; and the example of Berne was followed by the cantons of Lucerne, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhausen, and Zurich.

While, in this state of things, fresh negotiations were commenced with the French directory, a defensive force of about 20,000 men was collected, under the command of M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marshal in the service of France, and stationed on the frontiers. The other Swiss cantons dispatched their quotas to the defence of Berne, which amounted to about 5,500 men. A truce had been concluded with the French general in the Pays-de-Vaud, where an officer of the name of Brune had succeeded Menard in the command. The truce was to have expired on the 1st of March; but general d'Erlach, fearful lest the spirit of his troops should slacken, demanded, on the 26th of February,

positive orders to put his army in motion, and the council immediately made a decree to that effect. The plan of the campaign was now arranged by Mr. de Meuron, and notice had been given to the posts that hostilities were to commence on the evening of the 1st of March; when the movements of the Swiss general were frustrated by the repeal of the decree which had been so hastily passed, and the negotiation was renewed with the French commander.

M. de Met du Pan asserts, that the French general, Brune, had agreed to prolong the truce for thirty hours; but, on the 2d of March, the castle of Dornach, at the northern extremity of the canton of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and, at the same time, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Soleure, which capitulated to general Schawenbourg on the first summons. Erlenberg was immediately after reduced by general Brune, and the Swiss army was forced to retreat.

While dissension and mutiny prevailed the army of general de Meuron, the inhabitants of Berne saw the rapid approach of the victorious enemy. On the 3d of March, the levy of the *Landsknecht*, or, as the French would express it, the rising of the people in arms, was proclaimed. The expedient did not succeed in favour of the magistrates.—The people were no longer assembled in arms than they of themselves dissolved the government; a provisional regency was elected for the occasion; the event was notified to general Brune; and to facilitate a pacification, an order was issued to dismiss the army, on condition that the French would keep the posts they at present occupied.

Unsatisfied with this concession,

the French general insisted upon the town receiving a French garrison. In the mean time all was confusion both in Berne and in the army; the left division of which had mutinied, deserted their posts, and put to death some of their officers. By desertion, the Swiss army was now reduced to 12,000, to which might be added the undisciplined rabble, among whom the *Landsknecht* had called for about 8000 of the regular forces, were stationed at Newenegg, and 6000 at the position of Fraubrunn, against which general Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure at the head of 18,000 men. On the morning of the 4th of March, both were attacked by the French, and a momentary success seemed to crown the valorous efforts of the division which was stationed at Newenegg; but the forces stationed at Fraubrunn were, after a vigorous resistance, obliged to retreat. M. D'Esch rallied his men at Utten, where a second engagement took place, but with no better success on the part of the Swiss. At Gränichen, a league and a half from Berne, however, they again made a stand; whence they were driven by the gates of the capital, where, after another severe conflict, they were completely routed. The Swiss, in this engagement, lost 2,000 killed and wounded; the loss of the French was about 1,800.

On the evening of the 5th, general Brune entered the city of Berne by capitulation. The divisions of the Swiss army, stationed at Newenegg and Günslen, retreated; the soldiers of this last column, in despair, put their officers to death; and the unfortunate general D'Esch, in flying from the field of battle, was murdered by his countrymen and soldiers.

The submission of nearly the whole of Switzerland followed the defeat of the Bernese. The democratic republics, however, still made a glorious stand; defeated general Schawenbourg, and forced him to retire, with the loss of 3,000 men, after he had consented to a treaty, by which he engaged not to enter the smaller cantons.

The Swiss confederacy, after this revolution, changed its constitution, and even its name. Provisional governments, under the direction of the French generals, were established in the different districts, and the whole assumed the name of the Helvetic republic. Exactions and contributions were levied, as usual, by the French commissioners; and some shocking enormities are reported to have been committed, chiefly by the army of the Rhine; for the divisions which belonged to the army of Italy are said to have conducted themselves with superior humanity and justice.

Such is the hasty sketch, which, from the scanty materials that lie before us, we have been able to form of these transactions. In our succeeding volume we shall present our readers with a more detailed and more authentic narrative.

The French directory had rendered themselves ridiculous by their bombastic proclamations and decrees against the government of Great Britain. Though the pompous title of the *Army of England*, however, was announced to the people of France, it soon appeared that their threats were an empty delusion to captivate the multitude, and to lull them into confidence by belief in an enterprise, which, even in the highest paroxysm of revolutionary madness, they did not dare to attempt. With that fickleness which always characterises weak

statesmen, the frantic project of an invasion of England was changed for another scarcely less absurd. We have no documents before us which authentically explain the object proposed by these contemptible politicians from the expedition of Buonaparte into Egypt. It was believed that his object was to penetrate either by the isthmus of Suez, or by the Red-Sea, to the Indian Ocean, to embark his troops, and, by a co-operation with Tippoo sultan, to endeavour the overthrow of the British empire in the East. To us it appears probable, that the directory in this wild undertaking had no definite, and certainly no rational object. After the treaty of Campo-Formio, the army became a burden, which they found it difficult to support, and which it might be dangerous to their authority to maintain. The invasion of England was found to be totally impracticable. — The fleet which should convey the troops would certainly experience nothing but defeat from the acknowledged superiority of the British navy, and they were apprehensive of the reaction such a calamity might create. To avoid these difficulties, and to find occupation for the active, and, perhaps, dangerous spirit of Buonaparte, an expedition was planned to dispatch him to a distant shore, where success or misfortune could little interest the nation, and where his defeat could excite no reaction or murmurs, which might endanger themselves. The consummate vanity of this otherwise excellent officer was a convenient instrument in the hands of cunning men; and the deliverer of the East was too pompous a title for the conqueror of Italy to resist. — Such, at least, appears to us for the present, the origin of this expedition.

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—More correct information will probably enable us in our next volume to speak more satisfactorily on the subject.

The scheme was obscurely intimated to the council of five hundred by Eschaffereaux, on the 12th of April, in a speech, or report, which he made on the subject of colonisation. From that report, the sole object appears to have been the establishing a colony in Egypt, and “to regenerate (in the new language of France) a country which was the first theatre of civilisation in the universe.” While preparations were making secretly for the expedition, the public were amused with strange and monstrous stories of rafts, to be constructed for the invasion of England, and troops were collected on the northern coast of France, while the navy of the republic were secretly repairing to Toulon. At length, every thing being duly prepared, the general, Buonaparte, embarked on board the fleet, under the command of admiral Brueys, with about 40,000 men, chiefly the veterans of the Italian army, and sailed from Toulon in the latter end of May. Allured probably by the fame of its riches, Malta was their first destination. They arrived off that island on the 9th of June, and demanded leave to water the fleet. Apprehensive, however, of admitting so formidable an armament, the grand-master refused, and the French general prepared for an attack upon the place. The following day the French troops landed, under a heavy cannonade from the forts. The island of Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the southern parts of the island was reduced by another. The bulk of the inhabitants took refuge in the garrison, while the French made preparations

to press the siege with effect. The resistance made by the Maltese was, however, feeble on the whole. A sortie was attempted from the garrison, which the French immediately repulsed, and the standard of the order of Malta fell into the hands of the victors. On the 11th, the grand-master proposed a capitulation, by which the whole of the island, and all its dependencies, were surrendered to the republic.

The victorious general, after leaving a garrison of about 4,000 men in Malta, proceeded on his voyage about the 21st of June, and arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July, having escaped the British Squadron, which was detached in pursuit of him, under the command of admiral Nelson. His former fortune appeared to favour all his first efforts. The town of Alexandria was taken by assault on the night of the 5th, with the loss of between two and three hundred men. An almost indiscriminate plunder and massacre succeeded the assault; a circumstance which the general probably was unable to restrain, otherwise it certainly was the worst of policy in a country which he wished to conciliate, and, indeed, contrary to his general conduct in the Italian war. Rosetta, and some other places, soon after submitted; and wishing to mingle conciliation with terror, Buonaparte issued a proclamation, in the Arabic language, professing himself the friend and ally of the grand-signor; that the French were friends of toleration, and well disposed to the Mahometan religion; and that his sole object was to deliver Egypt from the tyranny of the Beys.

On the 21st, the French army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Morad Bey with a considerable

siderable body of the Mamelukes. On the 23d, the place was attacked and carried; the Mamelukes fought with determined valour, but fell before the superior tactics of European veterans. At Cairo a proclamation was issued, appointing a provisional government for Egypt, in which the authority of the grand-signor was still acknowledged, and the general promised to secure the pacha of Egypt in all his dignity and power.

Undismayed, however, by their former defeats, the beys still attempted to rally, and a formidable force was collected in the neighbourhood of Cairo. On the 25th, the French general attacked one of their posts at Lambabe, when 300 of the enemy were killed; but this was only a prelude to the famous battle of the pyramids, which was fought on the succeeding day, and which decided the fate of Egypt. In that engagement, twenty-three beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thousand of the Mamelukes were slain, and 400 camels, with their baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, were taken; while the loss of the French is only estimated at twenty or thirty killed, and about 120 wounded.

Thus the subjugation of Egypt appeared to be complete; but a dreadful reverse of fortune now awaited the adventurers, and this hitherto fortunate commander was to experience a calamity which he has never been able to surmount. On the 1st of August, the British admiral, Nelson, who had received a reinforcement of ten sail of the line, appeared off the mouth of the Nile; and he no sooner discovered the enemy than he made dispositions for the attack. The French fleet was at anchor in the bay of

Aboukir. The admiral's ship had 120 guns, and above 1,000 men; three had eighty guns each; and nine had only seventy-four. They were drawn up near the shore in a strong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and many gun-boats, and protected in the van by a battery, planted on a small island. Their situation, therefore, was extremely advantageous for defence; but the great danger of an attack did not deter the British admiral from making the attempt. He had as many ships of the line as the French commander, and he strengthened his line by the introduction of a ship of fifty guns; but, in approaching the enemy, he was deprived of the assistance of the Culloden, as it struck upon a shoal, from which it could not be extricated before the next morning. Three other vessels were hastily advancing in its rear; but the accident warned them of the peril; and they were so fortunate as to avoid the shoal.

The admiral was strongly desirous of breaking the line of the French, and surrounding a part of their fleet; and he ably executed his purpose. At sun-set the engagement commenced; and both parties fought with great spirit. While the victory was yet undecided, admiral Brueys received two wounds; and, having changed his situation, he was exposed to a fresh shot, which deprived him of life. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ships were captured; a third struck soon after; and the whole van was in the power of the English, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. L'Orient, the French admiral's ship, was warmly engaged with several of the hostile vessels, when an explosion indicated

cated the danger of a conflagration. The flames made a rapid progress; and all endeavours to check their fury were ineffectual. Ganteaume, who had assumed the command, ordered the crew to quit the ship, and he himself seasonably retired; but only a small number escaped destruction, when, about four hours after the commencement of the conflict, the burning vessel blew up with a dreadful explosion.

The engagement was prosecuted at intervals till day-break; and only two of the French ships of the line, and two frigates, escaped capture or destruction*. Captain Hood, in the *Zealous*, pursued the retreating vessels; but he was soon recalled by the admiral, as none of the ships could support him in the chase.

It was not to be supposed that such a victory could be obtained without a considerable loss of lives. In the British fleet, sixteen officers, and 202 seamen and marines, were killed; and 677 individuals were wounded. In the *Majestic* alone were fifty victims, and captain Westcott fell among the rest. The French loss has been variously stated; but it appears to have been very great. With regard to the prisoners, it is mentioned by Ganteaume, in an intercepted letter, that 3,100, of whom 800 were wounded, were restored by the British admiral, who, leaving a part of his fleet to blockade the port of Alexandria, sailed towards Sicily.

Thus, this ill-starred and indeed ill-concerted expedition served no other purpose than to swell the triumphs of the British navy, and to augment the power of an enemy at

once the dread and the abhorrence of the Ganic rulers. In the eyes of men of sense, the project could never be approved; but the defeat of the 1st of August put upon it, in the mind of every man, the seal of absurdity; and, from that moment, Buonaparte, and perhaps his government, might be considered as ruined.

The proceedings of the French legislature, during the course of the year 1798, were trifling in general, and scarcely worthy of the notice of the historian. In the month of April the election of the new third took place. The directory had employed every effort to secure the suffrages of the people in favour of their own creatures; but such were the sentiments, and probably the resentment of the nation, that all these efforts were unsuccessful. As the directory had established their power by trampling under foot the constitution, to preserve their seats, a new violation was offered to liberty and the laws of the republic. A message was sent from the directory to the council of five hundred, on the 2d of May. After enumerating the various efforts which the enemies of the republic had made, upon similar occasions, to introduce royalists and anarchists into the legislative assemblies, the message asserts, "that if ever there were a period in which the republic might appear superior to the perfidious hopes so often conceived for its destruction, and so often disappointed, it would be when, triumphant without, and seated upon the innumerable trophies which she has gained, she reckons almost as many victories as soldiers. Yet, notwithstanding this, there does

* Nine sail of the line were taken, and one (besides *L'Orient*) was burned, her own captain setting fire to her. A frigate also was burned by her commander.

exist an anarchical conspiracy to make the primary and electoral assemblies the nurseries of future plots." The directory next proceeded to state the revival of anarchy from the re-establishment of constitutional circles; they particularly point out Stratsburg, Perpignan, La Sarche, Metz, Vernnoul, and Paris, as places where the elections were influenced by the intrigues of the anarchists. The message concluded with hoping, that the council would not permit men loaded with every crime to sit in the legislature; and that they would mark with reprobation those infamous choices, equally derogatory from the dignity of the republic and their own independence.

An obsequious committee was appointed to make a report upon this message: on the 7th of May a report was accordingly made and brought up. It stated the necessity of excluding from the legislature the partisans of the two great factions which agitated the republic, the anarchists and the royalists. The reporter moved a plan containing eighty-eight articles; the first of which was to annul all the decisions that had been pronounced on individual election cases, in so far as they were inconsistent with the new disposition to be adopted.

The other part of the plan went to validate, or invalidate partially, the operations of the different electoral assemblies of the republic, by rejecting members of the same deputation, those whose election was ascribed to intrigue and the spirit of faction.

General Jourdan most justly considered the plan as hostile to the sovereignty of the people, and to the freedom of the constitution. Before the council took upon itself to act as a national jury, the exist-

ence of the conspiracy ought to be proved. Bouchin and Juillot spoke on the same side, and opposed a general proscription.

Audouin contended, that the interest of individuals must yield to that of the state, and that the measure proposed was necessary to the constitution, and the maintenance of true liberty. The plan was at length adopted, and Baillet took occasion to declare, that the report was the production of the committee, and not of the directory, as had been insinuated.

By this unprincipled measure, the elections of six or seven departments were annulled *in toto*; besides those of a great number of individuals.

About the same period the negotiator Treilhard was chosen to succeed Francis de Neufchateau, who was the director destined to vacate his seat.

As the negotiations at Rastadt were not terminated at the conclusion of the year, we shall reserve an authentic detail of them for our succeeding volume. We shall then present our readers with a copious retrospect, compiled from the most unquestionable authorities, which will not fail to throw new light on most of the facts related in the present chapter. Towards the conclusion of the year a storm began to collect in the northern horizon, which threatens, if not to make shipwreck of the French republic, at least to dismantle it of some of the proudest of its trophies.

To the ambition, rapacity, ignorance, and folly of the late directory, the French nation will have to attribute whatever misfortunes may hereafter befall them. Their insolence and their folly was evinced in the abrupt and shameful termination of the negotiations at

Little;

Little; and their ignorance of the politics of foreign courts was proved by their dispatching (at a moment when they ought to have dreaded a new and formidable coalition) their ablest general, with the flower of their army, on the wildest project that ever a disordered imagination could conceive.

Attached firmly as we are to the cause of general liberty, we shall not regret to see French ambition humbled, and a seasonable check given to a career of conquest which threatened to bury in confusion and desolation the European world. More will, however, depend on the prudence of the sovereigns engaged in the new confederacy than on the valour of their arms. Happy for them, for us, and for mankind, if they shall know when to stop! Let them beware of again goading to desperation a nation, which, with all its faults, is brave even to heroism, and skilled in the art of

war above its contemporaries. The confederated powers will, we trust, embrace the first favourable opportunity of restoring peace,—for it is peace, and not war (we again repeat it), which will effectually abridge the power and set limits to the encroachments of the French republic. If peace were restored, France would then begin to feel the wounds she has received; and we will venture to predict, that it will be long indeed before she will be able again to embark in a war. In the mean time contests will inevitably arise between the different factions in the interior of the republic. They will weaken one another more than they can be weakened by foreign efforts. The present ill-constructed fabric will inevitably fall; and a government will, we trust, be instituted in its stead more favourable to the liberties, the peace, and happiness of mankind.

PRICES of STOCK for the Year 1798.

N.B. The highest and lowest Prices of each Stock in the Course of any Month are put down in that Month.

1798.	Bank Stock	3 p.ct. red.	3 p.ct. conf.	4 p.ct. conf.	5 p.ct. Navy.	3 p.ct. conf.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Bonds.	India Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	S Sea Stock	Irish 5 p ct.	Imp. 3 p.ct.	Imp. Ann.	Omn.	New Loan.	Eng. Lot. Tickets.	Irish Pr. at ditto.	
Jan.	{ 119½ 118 }	{ 48½ 48 }	{ 49½ 47½ }	{ 59½ 59½ }	{ 69½ 69½ }	{ 72½ 70½ }	{ 13½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	{ 8 dif. 18 }	{ 15½ 14½ }	{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 48½ 47½ }	{ 52½ 51½ }	{ 59½ 59½ }	{ 45½ 44½ }	{ 9½ 9½ }			{ 11 17 0 11 12 0 }	{ 86½ 86 }	
Feb.	{ 122½ 119 }	{ 50½ 48½ }	{ 49½ 47½ }	{ 61½ 59½ }	{ 71½ 69½ }	{ 73½ 70½ }	{ 14½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	par. 3 dif.	{ 149 144½ }	{ 48½ 48 }		{ 53½ 52½ }	{ 61½ 59½ }	{ 46½ 44½ }	{ 9½ 9½ }			{ 12 14 6 11 18 6 }		
Mar.	{ 125 121½ }	{ 50½ 49½ }	{ 51 49½ }	{ 63½ 61 }	{ 74½ 72 }	{ 73½ 71 }	{ 14 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	2 pr. 1 dif.	{ 149 148½ }		{ 49½ 49½ }	{ 54½ 53½ }		{ 48 46½ }	{ 10 9½ }			{ 17 7 0 12 5 0 }		
Apr.	{ 122 116½ }	{ 47½ 47½ }	{ 49½ 48 }	{ 60½ 58½ }	{ 73½ 71½ }	{ 71½ 69½ }	{ 13½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	1 dif. 20	{ 149½ 147½ }	{ 48½ 47½ }		{ 52½ 52½ }	{ 59½ 57½ }	{ 46½ 46 }	{ 10 9½ }			{ 13 0 0 16 0 0 }	{ 7 7 * 7 3 0 }	
May	{ 119½ 116½ }	{ 47½ 47½ }	{ 49½ 48½ }	{ 60½ 58½ }	{ 73½ 72 }	{ 73½ 71½ }	{ 13½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }		{ 149½ 148½ }		{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 51½ 51½ }	{ 62½ 60½ }	{ 45 44½ }	{ 9½ 9½ }			{ 13 10 0 12 19 0 }	{ 7 7 0 7 6 0 }	
June	{ 119 118½ }	{ 48 47½ }	{ 49½ 49½ }	{ 61½ 61 }	{ 76½ 75½ }	{ 74½ 73½ }	{ 13½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }		{ 150½ 148½ }		{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 51½ 51½ }	{ 63½ 61½ }	{ 44½ 44½ }	{ 10 9½ }	2 pr. 1½			{ 13 5 0 13 4 0 }	{ 7 8 0 7 6 0 }
July	{ 125½ 119½ }	{ 49½ 47½ }	{ 50½ 49½ }	{ 63½ 61½ }	{ 75½ 74½ }	{ 75½ 74½ }	{ 14½ 13½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }		{ 150½ 144½ }		{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 53½ 48½ }	{ 69 63 }	{ 46½ 44½ }	{ 10½ 9½ }	{ 3½ 1½ }			{ 13 5 0 13 4 0 }	{ 8 0 0 7 12 0 }
Aug.	{ 132 124½ }	{ 51½ 48½ }	{ 50½ 48½ }	{ 66½ 63½ }	{ 78½ 75½ }	{ 79½ 76½ }	{ 15 14½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	2 pr. 1	{ 152½ 146 }	{ 50½ 50½ }	{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 55 55 }	{ 73½ 68½ }	{ 48½ 46½ }	{ 10½ 10½ }	{ 7½ 2½ }			{ 13 5 0 13 4 0 }	{ 21 0 0 7 5 0 }
Sept.	{ 131½ 129½ }	{ 50½ 49½ }	{ 50½ 49½ }	{ 65 65 }	{ 79½ 77½ }	{ 78½ 78½ }	{ 14½ 14½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }	2 1 dif.	{ 150½ 147½ }				{ 72 71½ }	{ 48½ 48½ }	{ 10½ 10½ }	{ 7½ 5½ }			{ 13 5 0 13 4 0 }	{ 7 8 0 7 5 0 }
Oct.	{ 139 130½ }	{ 56 52½ }	{ 56½ 50½ }	{ 70 66½ }	{ 85½ 79½ }	{ 83 80½ }	{ 16½ 15½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }		{ 163½ 150½ }		{ 51½ 51½ }		{ 57½ 55½ }	{ 74 70½ }	{ 11 10½ }	{ 19½ 7½ }			{ 13 17 0 13 5 0 }	{ 7 16 0 7 8 0 }
Nov.	{ 141 131½ }	{ 56½ 51½ }	{ 57½ 52½ }	{ 71½ 64½ }	{ 87 80½ }	{ 84½ 78½ }	{ 16½ 14½ }	{ 6½ 6 }		{ 171½ 160 }		{ 53½ 53½ }		{ 77½ 74½ }	{ 49½ 49½ }	{ 10½ 10½ }	{ 20 18½ }			{ 13 15 0 13 12 0 }	{ 8 5 0 7 16 0 }
Dec.	{ 138½ 132½ }	{ 54½ 52½ }	{ 56 52½ }	{ 68 64½ }	{ 83½ 81½ }	{ 83½ 79½ }	{ 15½ 14½ }	{ 6½ 6½ }		{ 167½ 160½ }				{ 76½ 74½ }	{ 52½ 49½ }	{ 10½ 10½ }		1½ pr. ½ dif.		{ 13 16 0 13 16 0 }	

* New Lottery.

PRINCIPAL
OCCURRENCES

In the Year 1798.

PRINCIPAL OCCURRENCES

In the Year 1798.

JANUARY.

1. **T**HE election of an alderman for the ward of Farringdon without, in the room of John Wilkes, esq. finally terminated this day in favour of Mr. Price; who, having a majority of 207 votes over Mr. Waddington, was declared duly elected. The numbers on the three days poll were,

Mr. Price.	Mr. Waddington.
Friday 188	179
Saturday 280	167
Monday 138	53
606	399

2. The late heavy rains have been so severely injurious to the land in several parts of Gloucestershire and the adjacent countries, as to render it quite impossible to sow the wheats even till this advanced period. The Thames has overflowed its banks, and laid the fields on each side the high road quite under water for a mile in extent between Cirencester and Hampton. The sheep are driven from their pastures, and cannot even be turned into the turnip-fields, on account of the lands being too wet, as the dirt they collect there becomes too injurious to the fleece.

From the London Gazette, Jan 2.

Parliament-street, Jan. 2. A letter, of which the following is an extract, has been received from

Peter Le Mesurier, esq. governor of the island of Alderney, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, dated Alderney, the 25th of December, 1797.

I have the honour of informing you, that yesterday afternoon, at three o'clock, a French cutter privateer had the boldness to chase the Ann cutter, of Hastings, close under one of our batteries, which she was just on the point of boarding with her boat, when the battery opened and obliged the French to sheer off.

Having observed that the English vessel outfailed the enemy while there was a breeze, and that the privateer was not of great force, I judged it probable that she might be captured by the troops of the garrison, and therefore ordered a detachment, with an officer, to embark in the same vessel that had been chased, and in another that fortunately happened to be in the road, having previously promised some gratuity to the owners, and in a few hours I learned, with much satisfaction, that the privateer was brought into our harbour.

She proves to be the Epervier, captain Pierce, with twenty-four men, mounting three guns, two swivels, and small-arms, belonging to Dunkirk, but fitted out at Cherburgh, on a fortnight's cruise from the 17th instant; had, on the 21st,

(A 2) taken

taken the brig Ann, Le Hirrel, master, from Gaspe to Jersey, with fish, and yesterday morning a small vessel, bound from hence to England, both which captures had been noticed from this island.

I cannot too much praise the readiness and alacrity shewn by major Gordon, the officers, and soldiers of the garrison, in the execution of my orders on this occasion; for the day was so far spent, that one quarter of an hour's delay might have frustrated all our exertions; but I am in duty bound to testify my particular obligations to town-major Hainell, who solicited to be employed, and instantaneously embarking, effected the capture without any loss.

I am further happy in reporting, that our battery was well served, as out of three shot fired within reach, one passed through the enemy's sails, and another killed a man on board.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of the Delphine, a French privateer cutter, pierced for 10 guns, 4 mounted, and 38 men, by his majesty's ship Niger, capt. Edward Griffith. She had captured the Active brigantine, of Jersey, and had been beat off the night before we fell in with her by an English letter of marque.—Also, the French privateer schooner Le Victoire, of 14 guns and 74 men, by his majesty's ship Termagant, capt. Lloyd, after a chase of four hours. She had captured two colliers, and was in pursuit of an English merchantman, when first discovered.

A common hall was held at Guildhall, for the purpose of electing a proper person to fill the office of chamberlain, vacant by the death of the late John Wilkes, esq. After the recorder had formally explained the purpose of the meeting,

Mr. Wilfon proposed sir Watkin Lewes, which being seconded by Mr. Griffiths, sir Watkin came forward and addressed the livery.

Mr. Clarke, the other candidate, then shortly addressed the livery, and on a show of hands there appeared about ten to one in his favour: notwithstanding which sir Watkin demanded a poll, which commenced at half past two and closed at four, and upon casting up the numbers, they appeared as follow:

Mr. Clarke	—	393
Sir W. Lewes		48

Majority 345

At the close of the poll sir Watkin declined giving any further trouble, and Mr. Clarke was consequently duly elected.

6. This day passports were sent off, by the commissioners for French prisoners, for a French agent to come to this country, to superintend and have charge of the provisioning the French prisoners. It is now agreed upon between the two countries, that the prisoners of each shall be maintained at the cost of their respective countries, the markets of both being open to the agent residing therein.—The prisoners in both are likewise to be kept in two or three places of general rendezvous, in place of being scattered over the country as heretofore. This country will save near half a million a year by this arrangement.

7. Count Rumford has made a donation to the Royal Society of 1000l. in the 3 per cents. for the purpose of instituting a biennial prize medal, to be disposed of by the decision of the president and council of the Royal Society.

9. Charles Crawley and Joseph Robinson, two seamen belonging

to his majesty's ship *Tromp*, were executed this morning at Spithead, for mutiny on board that vessel, during her passage home from *St. Helena*.

The *London Gazette* contains an account of the capture of *L'Aventure* letter of marque, formerly the *Onflow* Guineaman, of Liverpool, mounting 10 four and 2 eight pounders, and had on board, when captured, 190 men, by his majesty's ship *Mermaid*, capt. Newman.

10. At the Old Bailey sessions this day, Robert Reeves was put to the bar on a charge of forgery.

Mr. Fielding, on the part of the prosecution, addressed the jury. He observed that the crime imputed to the prisoner was no less than forgery, a conviction of which to their satisfaction would be attended with the forfeiture of his life; and for that reason, as well as on account of its being a crime that struck to deep at the root of the commerce and money transactions of the country, deserved their most serious attention. The prosecution was carried on, on the part of the directors of the bank, in consequence of that duty they owed the public. The prisoner, at the time of his apprehension, was a broker, in which situation he had acted for some years. Previous to his carrying on the business of a broker, he had been employed in some of the departments of the bank, and consequently was well skilled in all money transactions relating to it. It happened in the year 1796, that government had occasion for a loan of seven millions and a half, the terms of which were, that the 3 per cents were to be taken as at 67, and according to that rate the interest of the shares of such as meant to contribute to the loan was to be divided. The subscribers were also

to conform to this condition, namely, that if a person subscribed for one, two, or ten thousand pounds, he was to pay 10 per cent. on the sum he proposed to subscribe for, such advance to be made on the 26th of April, and the remaining 90 per cent. to be made good by six subsequent payments of 15 per cent. each. The second payment was to be made in May, and the third in June. In the act of parliament for regulating the terms of the loan, it was provided, that if subscribers, wishing to complete their loans, did not make good their payments within a specific time, that is to say, having paid the 10 per cent. in April, if they did not make the second payment in May, the first subscription became forfeited for the benefit of the public. This stock, of course, formed a considerable part of the business of the stock exchange. The prisoner was acquainted with a Mr. William Ashforth, who resided at Walworth, and knowing him to be possessed of money, contrived to get out of him sums to the amount of 3 or 4000*l*. The application of the prisoner to Mr. Ashforth for the loan of money was in the month of June, when the stipulated periods for the two first payments on the subscription to the loan to government, namely, the one in April and the other in May, were past. As a security for the money advanced by Mr. Ashforth, the prisoner deposited in his hands, what, in the language of the Alley was called scrip; the first installment of which had been duly paid, and the receipt signed by Mr. C. Allier, the proper clerk. This scrip, or receipts to the amount of near 300,000*l*. was deposited with Mr. Ashforth as a security for what he advanced. It happened that

this loan, after the first payment of 10 per cent. was made, bore a very considerable discount, and many preferred losing the first installment altogether, rather than running the subsequent hazard of losing their subscription; in consequence of which, this scrip became of very trifling value indeed, so much so, that there was discovered in the possession of the prisoner stock of this kind to the amount of near 60,000*l.* After the prisoner had made the deposit of this scrip, the matter rested till January 1797, when Mr. Ashforth conceiving that something more was necessary to make it a good security for his money, applied to the prisoner, who went with him to the bank for the purpose of getting the installments paid up, although he well knew the time had elapsed, and it was impossible to be done. The prisoner left Mr. Ashforth in the rotunda at the bank; staid away about two hours, and when he returned said he had paid up all the installments, and could give him the most perfect security. The prisoner then returned him six receipts, to the amount of 6000*l.* bearing on the face of them the appearance of every payment having been made at the proper time, and signed by the cashier of the bank. Thus was the forgery completed; but it was not till the October following it was discovered. Mr. Fielding said it was no matter whether the receipts were actually signed by the prisoner or not, the question was, whether he had not uttered them knowing the name to be forged. He thought from the whole of the circumstances, there could be no doubt of their not being the hand-writing of Mr. Allier, and consequently that the prisoner was guilty of the offence charged in the indictment.

The evidence of Mr. Allier was objected to by Mr. Wood, one of the counsel for the prisoner, and the court determined against admitting his testimony; however, it was proved by several clerks in the bank, who were acquainted with his hand-writing, that none of the receipts, except for the first advance of 10 per cent. were written by him.

Mr. Ashforth proved the several circumstances as stated by the learned counsel, Mr. Fielding.

A variety of legal objections were urged by Mr. Wood, Mr. Knapp, and Mr. Balmanno, but none of them were allowed.

The prisoner being called upon for his defence, said, that the loan in 1796 seeming likely to yield a considerable profit, he had purchased scrip to a large amount for himself and Mr. Ashforth, on which he had made the first payment. Having accounts to settle with Mr. Ashforth, he had deposited a considerable quantity with him, which, owing to an illness he was attacked with, he lost the opportunity of paying the installments in their due time: that he therefore went to the stock exchange, and purchased other scrip with all the subscriptions paid up, but from whom he purchased the same he could not tell. He said scrip was considered as current as bank notes on the stock exchange, and it was usual with persons who had large dealings to purchase scrip without making any minute of the parties they purchased of. He further said, if he had had any idea of his having committed a forgery, he would not have attended the stock exchange till the very hour and minute of his apprehension.

Several gentlemen of the stock exchange stated, that it was not unusual in the hurry of business to purchase

purchase scrip, without knowing from whom, but on being cross-examined, they admitted they were in general as circumspect as possible, and took notes of the seller as well as the party for whom they bought.

Several witnesses gave the prisoner an excellent character, after which the learned judge summed up the evidence with the utmost precision and candour, observing, that the principal points for the consideration of the jury were, whether the prisoner had uttered the receipts knowing them to be forged, or whether he had fairly purchased them on the stock exchange from persons whom in the hurry of business he had forgot.

The jury retired for thirteen minutes, and soon after returned with a verdict — *Gilty*.

Plymouth, Jan. 13. On the morning of the 11th, the *Cerberus*, of 32 guns, captain Drew, arrived in Cawsand Bay, from Cork, having under her convoy the *Reynard*, of 20 guns, and *Epervoir*, of 16 guns, French privateers, which had been captured by her in November last. During the night of the 10th, and morning of the 11th, the wind blew from the southward with great violence, attended by a very heavy sea, and for the most part hard rain; this state of the weather continued until about half past one o'clock P. M. when the wind abated considerably, and veered a little to the westward of the south. All the morning, till that time, the *Reynard* was in great danger of driving on the rocks in Firestone bay, but she fortunately escaped, and is now safe in Hamoaze. As soon as the gale abated a little, captain Drew of the *Cerberus*, Mr. James Drew, acting lieutenant of the same ship, and nephew to captain Drew; captain

Pulling, late of the *Penguin*, of 18 guns, now on the Cork station, Mr. Poore and Mr. Daly, midshipmen, captain D.'s coxswain, and a black servant belonging to captain P. together with a boat's crew of six sailors, left Cawsand Bay in the *Cerberus's* barge, and steered for Hamoaze, captain D. having letters from admiral Kingmill at Cork, for the port admiral here: they made their passage very safely, though the sea ran very hollow, until they came abreast of Redding Point, and at the opening of Hamoaze; but about two o'clock P. M. as they were passing the bridge, a very narrow channel, situate between Mount Edgcumbe and St. Nicholas's Island, they found, notwithstanding the wind had much abated, that the swell of the sea was there very heavy, occasioned by the then strong ebb tide from the harbour, running counter to the southerly wind at sea. The ground beneath being very rocky, and the water shoal, although we may fairly presume, that the utmost care was taken by captain Drew to guard against accidents, he could not prevent the melancholy fate which awaited him and his companions: when they got abreast nearly of St. Nicholas's Island, a heavy sea broke into the boat, which rendered her situation very dangerous: captain Drew now became alarmed, and instantly pulled off his coat to be prepared for the worst, at the same time advising all hands in the boat to consider of the best means of saving their lives, in case any still more imminent danger should arise: his fears were soon realised, for the sea which first struck the boat, was instantly followed by two others, by which she foundered, and, dreadful to relate, every person on board her, except two of the

(A 4)

sailors,

sailors, perished. Not being able to swim, each of them secured an oar, and on these they were driven to the rocks at Mount Edgumbe, by which means their lives were providentially preserved. Captain Drew was observed by these men for some time, combating the waves, and endeavouring to reach the shore, but his strength being exhausted, he sunk in their fight: his coat has been since picked up, and the letters for the port-admiral found in the pocket of it. Capt. Pulling had been lately promoted to the rank of post-captain, and took passage from Cork in the Cerberus, to join his majesty's ship Hindostan, of 54 guns, now fitting in this harbour for a store-ship, to the command of which he was just appointed by the lords of the admiralty. A short time since he married a daughter of admiral Kingmill, whom, among many other dear relatives, he has left to deplore this dreadful catastrophe. Captain Drew was unmarried, but has many very near relations at Saltash, about four miles from the spot where the accident happened, to lament his unhappy fate.

Admiralty Office, Jan. 13, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Peyton, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Downs, to Evan Nepean, Esq, dated on board the Overysfel, the 12th of January, 1798.

SIR,

I herewith send you inclosed a letter I have this day received from captain Lloyd, of his majesty's sloop *Racoon*, of this date, stating his having captured *Le Policrate* French privateer cutter, carrying 16 guns and 72 men, yesterday morning, off Beachy Head, which letter you will be pleased to lay before their lordships.

J. PEYTON.

Racoon, in the Downs, Jan. 12, 1798.

SIR,

I beg leave to acquaint you that yesterday morning at seven A. M. Beachy Head bearing north-east, distant about seven leagues, I discovered a cutter in the south-east, I immediately made all sail in chase, and, after a running fire of two hours, within musquet shot, came up and captured *Le Policrate* French privateer, carrying 72 men, and mounting 16 guns, five of which were thrown over-board during the chase. She is an entire new vessel, copper-bottomed, completely fitted for three months, and bound to the West Indies; sailed from Dunkirk on Tuesday last, and had not taken any thing. It is a matter of much concern for me to add, that, in consequence of my being under the necessity of carrying a very heavy press of sail, my deck (the chase being on the lee bow) was exposed to a very heavy fire of musquetry and grape shot from his stern chase guns, by which Mr. George Kennedy, the master, was killed, in whom the service has lost a most experienced seaman and a gallant officer; four seamen were wounded; two severely.

ROB. LLOYD.

Admiral Peyton, &c. Downs.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of *La Zelle* French lugger privateer, of 4 guns and 47 men, by his majesty's hired cutter *Stag*.

13. The lord mayor being indisposed, alderman *Le Meturier*, *locum tenens*, held a wardmote for the election of an alderman of Broad-street ward, in the room of Richard Clarke, esq. now chamberlain; when John Perryn, esq. of Broad-street, merchant, was chosen without opposition.

Admiralty Office, Jan. 16, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Reynolds,

nolds, Commander of his Majesty's Ship *La Pomone*, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Plymouth Sound, the 14th of January, 1798.

I beg to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that in the night of the 26th ult. I lost company with the *Phœbe*, in a very heavy gale of wind at W. S. W. which came on the 8th, and continued blowing strong, without intermission, until the 24th, and, though the violence of the gale then abated, still it blew from the west; that with every possible exertion we were unable to get farther to the westward than 29 degrees of longitude before the 31st ult. the day on which my limited time for cruizing on the ground prescribed by their lordships expired.

On the 1st instant I edged away to the eastward, and on the 5th, at eleven o'clock in the night, Ullant bearing N. 65 deg. E. 94 leagues, crossed a large ship, standing under easy sail to the N. W. I instantly gave chase, and soon got close alongside of her; for it being thick, hazy weather, she was deceived in our strength, and shrunk not from the action, but had the temerity to exchange several broadsides with us before she called out for quarter; in which we had one man killed and four wounded, and our masts and rigging considerably damaged. Having shifted the prisoners, and our carpenter plugged up eight shot-holes she had received between wind and water, we were about to take her in tow (for her mizen-mast was shot away, and she was utterly disabled to carry any sail), when the officer on board hailed us, and said she was sinking. I sent all our boats to her assistance

immediately, and finding no efforts could save her, had but just time to draw our men and their wounded from her, when she sunk along-side of us. She proved to be the *Cherri*, from Nantz, carrying twenty-six long twelve, eighteen and twenty-four pounders (mixed) upon her main deck, and two hundred and thirty men, commanded by Mons. Chaffin; had been out fourteen days, and taken nothing: she had twelve men killed, and twenty-two wounded; among the latter was the gallant captain, who, with two others, died of their wounds the next day.

On Thursday evening, the *Eddystone* bearing N. E. twelve leagues, I captured a little privateer from Ryfco, called the *Emprunt Fosse*; had only two small carriage guns, six swivels, and 25 men on board; she had been out but one day, and had taken nothing.

Our main-mast and fore-mast being wounded, and both of them fished, and much of the standing rigging so injured that it is necessary to replace it, I thought it would be expediting the service to steer directly for this port, instead of Fal-mouth; and I hope my having done so will meet their lordships' approbation.

This gazette also contains accounts from capt. Stopford, of his majesty's ship *Phaeton*, of his having captured a French brig privateer, of fourteen six-pounders, called *L'Hazard*; and also a Spanish merchant vessel, from Nantes, bound to St. Sebastian, laden with sundry articles of merchandize; the latter of which, being of little value, he destroyed; and of his having recaptured an English merchant-ship, called the *Arthur Howe*, of Dartmouth.

17. George Mealmaker, of Dundee,

dee, was tried by the high court of judicary at Edinburgh, for sedition, and was found guilty. He was the author of the handbill for dispersing which the rev. T. F. Palmer was sentenced to Botany Bay in Sept. 1793. See our volume for that year, p. (39.)

20. The London gazette contains an account of the capture of a French schooner privateer, called *Le Vengeur*, of 12 guns and 72 men, quite new; and also *L'Inconceivable* French privateer, of eight guns and 55 men: by his majesty's ship *Indefatigable*, captain sir Edward Pellew.

From the London Gazette, Jan. 23.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Bridport, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated the 20th instant.

SIR,

You will herewith receive copies of two letters from capt. Durham, of his majesty's ship *Anson*, and a copy of one from the hon. captain Stopford, of his majesty's ship *Phaeton*, which I transmit for their lordships' information.

I am, Sir, &c. &c. &c.

BRIDPORT.

Anson, Cawsand Bay, Jan. 17, 1798.

My Lord,

I beg leave to acquaint your lordship, that in the passage to England, I have retaken the *Harmony* galley, from St. Ube's, bound to London; also the *Active* of Bakimbre, American ship, with a valuable cargo; and the *George Randolph*, under Danish colours: the latter being a neutral vessel, and not suspicious, after taking out the prisoners, I permitted the master to proceed on his voyage.

I have the honour to be, &c.

P. C. DURHAM.

Right Hon. Adm. Ld. Bridport,
&c. &c. &c.

Phaeton at Sea, Jan. 11, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that his majesty's ships *Anson* and *Mermaid* joined me on the night of the 5th instant, the former having captured the French frigate the *Daphne*, on the night of the 29th of December, for the particulars of which I refer your lordship to capt. Durham's letter herewith inclosed.

This capture gives me much satisfaction, as the *Daphne* was the only British frigate in the possession of the enemy.

The alacrity with which she was discovered, chased and taken possession of, upon a lee-shore on the coast of Arcaßon, reflects (in my opinion) much credit upon captain Durham.

I have the honour to be, &c.

ROB. STOPFORD.

Right Hon. Lord Bridport,

K. B. &c. &c. &c.

Anson, at Sea, Jan. 4, 1798.

SIR,

In consequence of your signal, on the evening of the 29th of December, for having discovered an enemy in the S. W. steering to the E. S. E. with the *Anson's* signal to keep a look-out during the night, the moment it was dark I bore up, and steered the course I thought most advisable to cut off the enemy, and have much pleasure in informing you that I had the good fortune to cross upon her during the night; having exchanged a few shot, she struck, and proved to be the republican ship of war *La Daphne* (late his majesty's frigate *Daphne*), mounting 30 guns, and having on board 276 men, among whom are 30 passengers of various descriptions, two civil commissioners (*Jaiquelin* and *La Carze*), charged with dispatches for *Guadaloupe*,

daloupe, which were thrown over-board. The *Daphne* had five men killed and several wounded. I feel much indebted to the exertions of my officers and ship's company.

I am, &c. P. C. DURHAM.

Hon. Rob. Stopford, Captain of his Majesty's ship *Phaeton*,

23. Robert Franklin was executed, pursuant to his sentence, facing the debtors' door in the Old Bailey, for forgery.

27. The gazette contains a long proclamation, intimating that the plague had been communicated at Corsica by a vessel from Borberg, and requiring a strict quarantine for forty days to be observed by all vessels from thence, or from Spain, within the Mediterranean, or from Minorca, or Gibraltar. It farther contains a proclamation, permitting all his majesty's subjects, and the subjects of all states in amity with Great Britain, to trade to and from the Cape of Good Hope and its dependencies: except to and from the eastward of it; all the trade or with which shall be carried on by the India company, exclusively; and except in warlike stores, which shall be conveyed only by the company. The goods or merchandize imported from India by the Cape shall not be exported thence, except by the company, farther than shall be requisite for sea stores. All the manufactures of the subjects of his majesty on this side the Cape to be imported by that settlement duty-free. A fifth proclamation extends, for six months from the 25th instant, the prohibition on the export from this country of naval stores, except to Ireland, or for the necessary supply of vessels sailing hence, or for the supply of his majesty's garrisons, &c.—It contains also a particular account of the capture of the *La Belliqueux*, a French corvette, now fitted as a

privateer, pierced for 20 guns, mounting 14 eight-pounders and 4 carronades, and 120 men, by his majesty's ships *Melampus* and *Sea Horse*;—Also, the *La Pensée* French schooner privateer, mounting two four-pounders and nine swivels, and carrying 32 men; captured by his majesty's sloop *Raccoon*; and a proclamation for a general fast to be held throughout England and Wales, and town of Berwick upon Tweed, on Wednesday the 7th of March next; and another of like purport for a fast in Scotland on Thursday the 8th of the same month.

Antigua, Jan. 28. On the 13th inst. died, at English Harbour, Charles Peterson, esq. first lieutenant of his majesty's ship *Perdrix*. This event was occasioned by a dispute between the deceased and lord Camelford, upon the right of commanding at English Harbour. Lord C. commanded his majesty's sloop of war the *Favourite*, by virtue of an order or warrant from admiral Harvey; and Mr. P. (though an older lieutenant than lord C.) had lately served on board that ship under his command; but, having been removed to the *Perdrix*, and lord C. not having a commission as master and commander, Mr. P. being then at English Harbour, supposed himself to be the commanding officer, and under that idea issued some orders to lord C. which were answered by other orders from lord C. to Mr. P. Upon Mr. P.'s refusal to obey these orders, a lieutenant with a party of marines were sent to put him under arrest, and Mr. P. prepared for resistance, and ordered the crew of the *Perdrix* to arm in his defence. But before any conflict took place, lord C. arrived, went up to Mr. P. demanded if he would obey his orders or not; and, upon being answered in the negative,

tive, he immediately shot him dead upon the spot. An inquest was taken by the coroner the next day; but the jury, not being willing to take upon themselves the determination of the question upon whom the command at English Harbour had devolved, found only that the deceased had been shot by lord Camelford in consequence of a mutiny. A court martial has since been held on board his majesty's ship *Invincible*, in Fort Royal bay, by William Cayley, esq. captain of his majesty's ship *Invincible*, and senior captain of his majesty's ships and vessels in Fort Royal bay, Martinique, president; captains J. Mainwaring, Charles Ekins, Richard Brown, and Alexander Burrowes. — The court, being duly sworn, proceeded to try lord Camelford; and, having heard the whole of the evidence adduced on the occasion, and what the prisoner had to offer in his defence, and maturely and deliberately weighed and considered the same, and being fully sensible of the necessity of prompt measures in cases of mutiny, were unanimously of opinion, that "the very extraordinary and manifest disobedience of lieutenant Peterson, both before and at the instant of his death, to the lawful orders of lord Camelford, the senior officer at English Harbour at that time, and the violent measures taken by lieutenant Peterson to resist the same, by arming the *Perdrix's* ship's company, were acts of mutiny highly injurious to the discipline of his majesty's service. The court do therefore unanimously adjudge, that the right hon. lord Camelford be honourably acquitted; and he is hereby honourably acquitted accordingly."

Admiralty-Office, Jan. 29.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral the

Earl of St. Vincent, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Lisbon, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Ville de Paris, in the Tagus, Jan. 10, 1798.

I inclose, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, letters I have received from the captains of his majesty's ships *L'Aigle*, *Blanche*, and *Mercury*, and *Speedy* sloop, acquainting me with the captures they had lately made: three of those taken by *L'Aigle* (the fourth being retained as a tender), *Le Bayonnois*, taken by the *Blanche*, and *Le Benjamin*, by the *Mercury*, are safe arrived in this river.

ST. VINCENT.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. Tyler, of his Majesty's Ship *L'Aigle*, to Admiral Earl St. Vincent, dated off Cape Finisterre, Dec. 28, 1797.

On the 26th instant I chased into the bay of Corunna three vessels, and captured them, the *Anura* in company. I left her in charge of the prizes, while I chased a suspicious sail to the westward. This morning I fell in with two of the prizes; the third, a brig laden with timber, unfortunately overset this morning, while I was in chase of them; however, the men were saved; the other two have hemp, coals, and nails. On the 30th of last month I captured a French privateer, of four guns, and 52 men; she had taken three English merchant ships, and sent one into Lach bay. I sent Mr. Triton, the master, and 20 men, to cut her out. The same evening he captured a Spaniard, laden with Sardinias, and sent her for Lisbon.

I am, &c.

CHA. TYLER.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Rogers, of his Majesty's Ship *Mercury*, to Admiral Earl St. Vincent,

cent, K. B. &c. &c. &c. dated at Sea, January 6, 1798.

I beg to acquaint you, that yesterday, proceeding to cruize, in obedience to your orders, I fell in with, twenty leagues W. N. W. of the rock of Lisbon, Le Benjamin French ship privateer, belonging to Bourdeaux, pierced for 20 guns, but mounting 16 four and six-pounders (ten of which he threw overboard), and 132 men, which I captured after a chase of thirty-six hours; the Alcmena, Lively, and Thalia, under the orders of capt. Hope, joined company during the chase. The privateer sails extremely well, and is a very desirable ship for his majesty's service; she is copper-bottomed and perfectly new, this being her first cruize, during which she captured the Governor Bruce English brig, from Bristol, bound to Faro; a Portuguese schooner; and was beat off by an English letter of marque.

I have the honour to be, &c.

THOMAS ROGERS.

Admiralty Office, Jan. 30, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Moore, of his Majesty's Ship Melampus, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated in Cawland Bay, the 27th of January, 1798.

SIR,

You will please to inform my Lords commissioners of the admiralty, that, on the 23d inst. in lat. 50. deg. north, long. 12 deg. west, after a close but short action, we captured La Volage, a French ship corvette, lent to the merchants, mounting 20 nine-pounders and 2 eighteen-pounders, and 195 men, commanded by citizen Desageneaux, captain of a frigate.

I am sorry to say, that two of the Melampus's seamen were mortally wounded, and are since dead, and three more dangerously wound-

ed. The enemy had four killed and eight wounded.

The officers and ship's company of his majesty's ship under my command behaved perfectly to my satisfaction.

La Volage was three weeks from Nantz, fitted for a three-months cruize, but had only taken an American ship, and destroyed an English brig from Belfast, bound to Lisbon with coals.

The captain and all the officers of La Volage are navy officers, with a congé for three months.

I am, &c. GRAHAM MOORE.

This gazette also contains accounts of the captures of the following French privateers; Le Bayonnois brig, of 6 guns and 40 men, by his majesty's ship Blanche, capt. Hotham; Le Dragon schooner, of 12 guns and 80 men; and Le Dix-huit de Fructidor sloop, of 10 guns and 75 men, by his majesty's ship Tamer, captain Western; and La Venturer, mounting 2 three-pounders, 6 fwivels, and small arms, pierced for 8 guns, carrying 33 men, by the Penelope cutter, capt. Burdwood;—also, two Spanish privateer luggers, and a schooner, by the Speedy, captain Downman.

30. A court of proprietors was held at the East India House, to take into consideration the intended establishment of a government on the island of Ceylon in the East Indies.

The court having assembled, a long conversation took place between the gentlemen who had appointed the court to be held, and several of the directors. It was contended by sir Stephen Lushington, that it would be proper the proceedings of the directors with his majesty's ministers upon the business, should be previously read.—He conceived, that by reading these pro-

proceedings, the gentlemen who had called the court, might possibly be induced to abandon the purposes for which they had called it. At all events, whatever might be the result, he trusted the gentlemen present would refrain from those florid declamations, which, upon a question like this, might do considerable detriment, but could be productive of no good.

Mr. J. Adair, major Scott, and several other gentlemen, spoke to the point of order, whether the proceedings of the directors should be read. The chairman being unable to take the sense of the court from the show of hands, a division took place, when the majority was 91 against 58 in favour of the nine proprietors stating their purpose, previous to the directors reading their proceedings.

Mr. Huddellstone then rose. He began by stating, that in bringing forward the present subject, he was not actuated by any motives of a party nature, by any considerations of general or particular disapprobation of the conduct of his majesty's ministers with regard to the affairs of India; on the contrary, he should be ever ready to give every aid to their endeavours for the public advantage. In times like these, when the country was at war with a most implacable enemy, determined to take every advantage of our situation, it would ill become any man to act in opposition to the measures of government, merely from a motive of party spirit; at the same time he saw no reason why men should approve, without distinction, whatever that government thought proper to adopt. In no instance did he disapprove of its conduct more than in the intended establishment at the newly-acquired island of

Ceylon. The attempt to establish a government there in the name of his majesty, distinct and independent of the East-India company, was a departure from the spirit of the charters granted to that company; a deviation from the system by which the affairs of India had ever been conducted; a manifest violation of the independence of the company, and an infringement of its rights and privileges. He maintained, that the right of the East India company to the government of the different places in India was secured to them, not only by their former charters, but was unequivocally acknowledged upon the last renewal of them; and that it was an unjust stretch of power to wrest from them their exclusive right to the government of the East Indies, by appointing an establishment on the island of Ceylon. He was well assured such an appointment would not only be destructive of the independence of the company, but also detrimental to the interests of this country; and he hoped the court of directors not only had resisted the innovation, but that they would continue to resist it by every possible means, and would use their utmost power to induce his majesty's ministers to relinquish their design. After making a very able speech, he concluded by moving several resolutions, the substance of which was to the effect,

“ That this court considers the appointment by his majesty's ministers of the Hon. Frederick North to the government of the island of Ceylon, as a measure injurious to the interests, and to the hitherto conceived rights of the East India company, and as a sudden and alarming innovation on a system under which the British interests in
India

India have been administered for nearly a century past; which system has proved not less beneficial to the public than to the East India company, and was expressly and repeatedly recognised and admitted, both by his majesty's ministers and the court of directors, in the course of the negotiation for the late renewal of the company's charter."

He moved another resolution, recommending the directors to apply to his majesty's ministers to induce them to abandon the measure, and in case of their refusal, to petition his majesty to that effect.

The resolutions were read, upon which Mr. Twining rose to second them. He entered into a general detail of the privileges of the East India company, as secured by charter, and particularly adverted to the language used by Mr. Dundas when their charter was renewed. He had said, that the affairs of India had succeeded so well under the management of the East India company, that no alteration in that system should at any time take place. He next read a variety of papers, to prove the exclusive right of the company to the government of the country. He afterwards observed, that the advantages to be derived from the island of Ceylon were trivial; that, in fact, the possession of it had been hitherto injurious; that the company had purchased an immense quantity of spices, which still continued on their hands, the duties on which amounted to 275,000*l.* liable to be demanded at any time by government. He concluded by observing, it was incumbent on the directors to shew they had done every thing in their power to prevent the present measure.

The chairman said, he was of opinion, had the proceedings of

the directors been read, there would have been no necessity for proposing the foregoing resolutions. He trusted now those resolutions had been put, there could be no objections to reading the proceedings. With respect to what had been mentioned concerning the spices, he was sorry to observe a very improvident bargain had been made by the company's servants. The duty was upwards of 300,000*l.* on those spices; but he could assure the court it was not intended by government to take those duties in advance, but only as the articles were consumed. He trusted the reading their proceedings would put an end to the discussion.

The proceedings of the court of directors, containing a preliminary correspondence with Mr. Dundas; the opinion of the company's counsel in favour of the king's legal right to appoint a governor; minute of a conversation between the chairs and Mr. Dundas, with a subsequent resolution of the court of directors, recommending, under all the circumstances, an acquiescence in the appointment; also a letter from Mr. Dundas to the chairs, dated the 29th instant, protesting in very strong and pointed terms against any dereliction of the powers of the crown to appoint a governor for Ceylon; having been read by the clerk;

Sir Francis Baring said he was of a different opinion from the counsel whose sentiments had been just read. He conceived the present establishment was only adopted for the purpose of throwing patronage into the hands of Mr. Dundas and his majesty's ministers. This cannot be an appointment to provide for any particular party, unless they know not how else to provide for the persons they are about to send

send out. It has been stated, that the establishment is to be very small; what was the suite of lord Mornington? *that*, indeed, must be in the recollection of the court. What now is to be the suite of the Hon. Mr. North? He is to have a secretary, a private secretary, a sub-secretary, who is to have an assistant secretary, two clerks, and three gentlemen to learn the languages. Why not send a person conversant in the languages, and maintain him yourselves?

The deputy chairman (Mr. Bosanquet) contended at considerable length, that the right of the appointment was in the crown, as much so as the appointment of a governor to Botany Bay, or any other place. He thought it safe in the hands of government, and could not see that it was any advantage to the East India company.

Mr. Jones Adair contended that it was not a question of prerogative, but of patronage; and concluded by moving that the discussion be adjourned to a future day.

Mr. Rous informed the court, that his opinion had not been formed upon the charter of 1758, or upon the opinions of the attorney and solicitor general of that day; but upon the spirit of the various acts of parliament made for the regulation of the government of India.

Mr. Jackson opposed the motion of Mr. Adair, in a speech of much length, in which he contended, that by this appointment the trade of the East India company would be considerably injured. That as the grant was exclusively theirs, so ought to be the appointment of a government. It had been so for more than 150 years past. A simi-

lar contest took place after the capture of Pondicherry by an union of forces; but lord Pigot claimed Pondicherry for the East India company. Sir J. Lindsey at that period went out, and exercised his powers in favour of the crown. Where now, asks the nabob, is the power of this great company, who have so long governed in India? The popularity of the company was about to experience a rapid decline, when sir J. Lindsey was called home, by which measure India was saved. He went into considerable length as to the general tendency of the appointments on the East India company's concerns, and concluded by moving the following amendment:

"That this court do agree in opinion with the court of directors in their resolution of the 25th inst. but, at the same time, that this court agree with their court of directors on the inexpediency of taking any further steps at present, after reference to the written declaration of the right hon. Henry Dundas, in his letter of the 16th inst. read this day, they confidently rely on their care and vigilance, that this temporary appointment shall not be drawn into a precedent for establishments, which, if made permanent, must materially affect the rights and interests of the company under the present charter."

Mr. Henchman seconded the amendment. The chairman read an extract of a letter from Mr. Dundas, in which it stated, that the government of the island of Ceylon was to be given up to the India company on the conclusion of peace, and that they, in the mean time, were to have the exclusive trade of the island.

Sir Francis Baring suggested the propriety of both the original resolutions,

lutions, as made by Mr. Huddleston, and Mr. Jackson's amendment being adjourned, upon the propriety of which a long conversation took place between Mr. alderman Lushington, Mr. Twining, the deputy chairman, Mr. Henchman, lord Kinnaird, sir Stephen Lushington, Mr. Huddleston, Mr. Grant, sir Francis Baring, Mr. Randle Jackson, Mr. Durant, and Mr. Knox.

After which the chairman put the question of adjournment; and upon a division there appeared,

For the adjournment - 41

Against it - - - 37

Majority for the adjournment 4

FEBRUARY.

Admiralty Office, Feb 6, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels employed on the Coast of Portugal, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the *Ville de Paris* in the Tagus, on the 20th of January, 1798.

SIR,

I inclose letters from the captains of *L'Aigle*, *Alcmene*, and *Mercury*, *Speedy* and *King's Fisher* sloops, reciting the captures of French and Spanish privateers, made by the ships and sloops under their commands. The judgment displayed by captain Pierrepont, joined to his spirited conduct, and that of the officers and crew of his majesty's sloop *King's Fisher*, in the action with the *Betsy*, does credit to them; and honour to his majesty's arms; and the activity of all the cruizers under my command is worthy of commendation.

I am, &c. ST. VINCENT.

1798.

Mercury, at Sea, Jan. 15.

My Lord,

I had the honour to acquaint you, in my letter of the 6th inst. of having captured *Le Benjamin* French ship privateer, belonging to Bourdeaux. I have now the satisfaction to inform your lordship, that, this morning, *Cape Finisterre* bearing east half north 40 leagues, we discovered two sail to leeward, and, upon chasing them, soon found they were armed vessels. They continued near together until the *Mercury* came almost within gun shot of the sternmost, intending, as I supposed, to support each other; but, upon being cloistered, they steered different courses, and I was enabled to come up with only one of them, after a chase of eight hours, who fired a few shot, and struck his colours. She proves to be *Les Trois Sœurs* French brig privateer, belonging to Rochelle, pierced for 18 guns, but mounting 16 six-pounders, and 100 men, copper-bottomed, sails remarkably well, and only five days out of port on her first cruise. I have the honour to be, &c.

THO. ROGERS.

King's Fisher, Tagus, Jan. 12.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your lordship, that on the morning of the 8th instant, the *Burlings* bearing east, distant fifty leagues, at day-light we discovered a ship in our weather quarter, and soon after perceived her to bear up, and stand towards us; at nine we tackled, and at half past she hoisted French colour, and began firing, which we returned as we passed on different tacks, but at too great a distance to do much execution; she then wore: finding we could not weather her as I wished, we shortened sail for her to get abreast

(B) of

of us, when we began to engage, and continued for an hour and a quarter; falling little wind, and our jib-boom being carried away, she shot a-head of us, and endeavoured to make off, crowding all sail, and firing her stern chasers. Having got out another jib-boom, and the wind freshening, at one P. M. we were enabled to renew the action, which was continued for half an hour, when she struck. She is called *La Betsey*, a ship privateer, fitted out at Bourdeaux, copper-bottomed, pierced for 20 guns, but mounting only 16 six-pounders, and had on board 118 men, one of whom was killed; the first and second captain and six seamen wounded; the second captain and three seamen since dead of their wounds. She had been out fifteen days, but made no capture.

The damages sustained by the *King's Fisher* in hull, sails, and rigging, are trifling; and I am happy to add, that one man only is slightly wounded.

I beg to express my entire approbation of the steadiness and good conduct of the officers and ship's company during the action, and have the honour to be, &c.

CH. H. PIERREPONT.

Copy of another Letter from Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board his Majesty's Ship *Ville de Paris*, in the River Tagus, Jan. 20, 1798.

SIR,

I inclose a letter I have received from captain Williams, commander of his majesty's store-ship *Gorgon*, whose judgment in bearing away for Lisbon, upon the intelligence he had obtained, meets my full approbation, and you will acquaint the lords commissioners of the

Admiralty with his subsequent success.

I am, Sir, &c. ST. VINCENT.
Gorgon, Tagus, Jan. 16.

My Lord,

I have the pleasure of acquainting your lordship, that at half past noon, on Saturday the 13th, in lat. 46 deg. 9 min. long. 7 deg. 33 min. Cape Finisterre bearing S. 20 W. distance about seventy leagues; I fell in with and retook the *Anne* brig, of Dartmouth, bound from Newfoundland to Lisbon. She had been taken fifteen days by a French privateer; and whilst exchanging people, another brig, under national colours, bore down upon us, who, after a few shot being fired at her, struck to his majesty's ship under my command; she proves to be *Le Henri*, a French privateer, from Nantes, carrying 14 guns, and 108 men; she had thrown five of her guns overboard, had been out five days, and taken nothing. I immediately ordered my first lieutenant Archbald, with Mr. Tritton and sixteen other supernumeraries belonging to *L'Aigle*, to take possession of her, and proceed in company with me to Lisbon, where I have the additional pleasure to inform your lordship she is safe arrived, and have every reason to expect the brig will shortly join us. I am, &c.

RICH. WILLIAMS.

This Gazette also contains accounts of the captures of a French privateer ship, of 20 guns and 90 men, copper-bottomed, and a fast sailer, by his majesty's sloop *L'Aigle*, capt. Tyler; *Le Buonaparte* French privateer, carrying two guns, some swivels, and 40 men, by the *Lively*, capt. Hope; a Spanish schooner privateer, mounting four carriage guns and 12 swivels, with 40 men, new and coppered, by.

by the Speedy, capt. Downman; and L'Henrouille Nouvelle French ship privateer, of 22 guns, and 130 men, by the Indefatigable, captain Sir Edward Pellew.

6. A general court of proprietors of bank stock was held at the Bank, convened by public advertisement, at the instance of nine proprietors, "for the purpose of taking into consideration the propriety of a subscription to the books now opened for receiving contributions for the public service, to be made by the Bank in its corporate capacity." At twelve o'clock the directors came in, and Mr. Thornton officiated as *locum tenens* for the governor (Mr. Raikes), whose absence, he informed the court, could not be avoided. He stated the purpose for which they were assembled, and directed the secretary to read the requisition of the nine proprietors at whose desire the meeting had been called. After Mr. Best had read the letter,

Mr. Foster (the banker) informed the court, that he had serious doubts in his mind, whether as a corporate body, that meeting had a right to dispose of the property in bank stock, not being able to say how those members who were not present could be bound by their determination. He professed himself a friend to the measure about to be proposed, but wished for information on this head.

Mr. Thornton said, that having himself no doubt of the power of the present meeting, he had not directed the counsel for the Bank to attend, or to give his opinion on the subject; but informed the court that their solicitor (Mr. Kaye) was present, who would give them every satisfactory information in his power.

Mr. Kaye then read various ex-

tracts from their charter, and other official documents, tending to prove, that the body of the proprietors were to be governed by the majority of voices to be collected at a general meeting.

Mr. Foster again rose. He said his doubts were still unsatisfied; and before the meeting proceeded to the adoption of any thing decisive, he submitted to it the propriety of taking the opinion of their counsel on the subject of his doubts.

Mr. Smith (of the house of Smith and Devisne) called the attention of the proprietors to the alarming situation of the country. He exhorted the meeting to be alive to the present exigencies, to lend their best aid to avert the surrounding difficulties, and by their conduct of that day, set an example worthy of the imitation of all other corporate bodies in the kingdom: and concluded by moving, "That the governor or deputy governor of the Bank of England, be directed by this court to subscribe at the books now opened for receiving contributions for the public service, the sum of ———"

Mr. Bosanquet stated it as his opinion (in answer to his friend Mr. Foster), that he had no doubt in his mind, but that the court then assembled had full power to come to any resolution they might think fit, by which the proprietors, in their corporate capacity, were bound to abide.

Mr. Alderman Lushington seconded the motion of Mr. Smith, and began a very long speech, by expressing his assent to the sentiments expressed by Mr. Bosanquet, relative to the right the present meeting had of voting any part of the surplus of the profits of the corporation to be applied to any specific purpose. The alderman then drew a picture of the state of

this country, contrasting it with France, and reminded the meeting of the sacrifices made at the period of the revolution. The question now, he said, was not, whether one form of the constitution or another should be preferred, but we were now contending whether this day three months we should have any constitution at all. He entreated them to reflect on the importance of the moment, and the necessity of great exertion. An example had been set, he said, by the highest personage in the kingdom, which many appeared to think would have had a better effect, had the sum given been larger. He had taken much pains to acquire information, as to the means of the personage he alluded to; and as it was well known that the civil list was appropriated by act of parliament; and that the only sum which his majesty had at his own disposal, was the sum of 60,000*l.* per annum, which was given not for the purposes of dissipation, but for those beneficent purposes to which it was constantly applied by that great personage. This then was the only income possessed by his majesty, out of which he had most generously given one third. He trusted that this high example would have its effect, and induce others to offer a liberal aid to the services of government.

Mr. Edward Kemble expressed his sorrow that the doubts of any individual member should, for an instant, have delayed the meeting from coming to a resolution. For his own part, he said, he was but a small holder of bank stock; but was it ten times its present amount, most willingly would he give it, should it contribute to the downfall of an implacable and ambitious enemy, or to the restoration of peace.

He entreated that some member

would now move to fill up the blank.

Mr. Thornton observed, in consequence of what had fallen from Mr. Lushington, respecting the contribution of a high personage, and he thought it prudent to state, that a communication on that subject had been sent to the governor, from authority that might be relied on, that in contradiction to the various rumours which had gone abroad, an income of 60,000*l.* per annum, derived from the civil list, was the whole sum at the disposal of his majesty—nor was there any sum of money, in this or any other country, which he could appropriate to this purpose.

Mr. Hunter then moved, that the blank be filled up with the sum of two hundred thousand pounds.

Several members were for half a million.

Mr. Smith begged leave to fill up the blank with the sum mentioned by his friend (Mr. Hunter), which being done, the question was put, and carried unanimously.

Shrewsbury, Feb. 7. About three weeks ago, as lord Berwick's workmen were employed in digging his lordship's new piece of water, between Ternbridge and the river Severn, in a ploughed field, yet at a very little more than plough-depth, beneath the surface of the earth, they came to an enclosure of large stones, within which were ranged three large glass urns of very elegant workmanship, one large earthen urn, and two smaller ones of fine red earth. Each of the urns has one handle, and the handles of the glass urns are elegantly ribbed. The glass urns were about twelve inches in height, and ten in diameter. The large earthen urn is so much broken that its dimensions cannot be made out: but on its handle are stamped the letters SPAN, which are supposed to be the workman's

man's mark; the small urns are about nine inches high. Within the glass urns were the remains of burnt bones and fine mould; and in each a fine glass lachrymatory, consisting of the same materials as the urn, which are a most beautiful transparent light green. Near one of them was a part of a jaw-bone, with a grinder quite perfect therein. An earthen lamp, and a few Roman coins of the lower empire, of no value, were discovered in the same place. The whole was covered with large flat stones, whereon was laid a quantity of coarse rock stone; from which extraordinary care to preserve these remains, as well as from the fine quality and colour of the glass, it may be presumed to have been the burial place of some family of distinction, resident in the neighbouring colony of Uriconium. One of the glass urns, and part of another, the fragments of the larger earthen urn, one of the small ones, one of the lachrymatories, the lamp, and a few coins, are the only parts of this most curious discovery which were rescued from the blades of the workmen.

9. This day at one o'clock, the lord-mayor, attended by a numerous body of respectable merchants, bankers, &c. appeared upon a temporary building erected in the Royal Exchange, for the purpose of promoting the voluntary contributions for the service of the country. The whole area of the Exchange was crowded with the most respectable merchants and traders of London, to the number of many hundreds.—The lord-mayor, in a short speech, having stated the object of the meeting, Mr. Bosanquet said, they were now called upon, in a crisis of danger and difficulty, to step forward in defence of their coun-

try. It was not necessary for him to remind them of the contest in which we were engaged: it was admitted by the merchants of London, that we were struggling for the preservation of a constitution diffusing invaluable blessings, and protecting all ranks of men from oppression and tyranny. The merchants of London, he was certain, would ever support the high character for patriotism and liberality, which they had so successfully established; and he hoped, that the present subscription would not only aid the public service in a very material degree, but, as a proof of the general feeling and sentiments of the country, would be universal. He wished it to extend from one end of these kingdoms to the other, that the world may be convinced, that Britons are unanimous in their determination to defend their constitution and government, as by law established, against the utmost efforts of a ferocious and inveterate enemy. Mr. Bosanquet concluded his speech with proposing several resolutions, stating the necessity of the subscription, from the conduct of the enemy; and proposing that books should be opened at the Exchange for subscriptions, to be afterwards forwarded to the Bank of England; recommending at the same time to all bodies corporate, mayors and chief officers of cities and towns in the kingdom to call meetings, and promote subscriptions, in their respective districts. The resolutions were unanimously agreed to, and loud shouts of applause. The thanks of the meeting were then returned to the lord mayor, and books were immediately opened, to which great numbers appeared crowding to enter their names.

Before the meeting broke up,
(B.) Mr.

Mr. alderman Watſon ſtepped forward, and exclaimed—"One cheer for Old England," which was immediately given with great enthuſiaſm; and it was followed by another—for "The King."

As ſoon as the meeting was diſſolved, four ſeparate books were opened on the hutting; and at the cloſe of the day, the exact ſum ſubſcribed in caſh was 46,534l. 34s. 6d. which, if calculated for the time the books were opened, is at the rate of 400l. a minute. The number of ſubſcribers was 218, and the ſubſcriptions from one guinea to 3000l. which laſt ſum was the donation of the houſe of Boyd, Benfield, and Co. with the promiſe of continuing it annually during the war. Several other ſubſcriptions were alſo ſet down as annual; and the whole are free gifts, without any reference to a compoſition in lieu of taxes.

The manager of Covent-garden theatre, with a laudable ſpirit of patriotiſm, devoted the profits of this night's entertainment to the voluntary ſubſcription for the defence of the country. After the play an interlude, conſiſting of loyal and patriotic ſongs, was given. There was not a crowded houſe, but a large and elegant audience; and as the price of admiſſion to the boxes and pit was advanced, and all the performers and ſervants of the houſe played gratuitouſly, the profits muſt have been conſiderable.

Admiralty Office, Feb. 13.

Copy of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Kingſmill, Commander in Chief of His Maſteſty's Ships and Veſſels on the Coaſt of Ireland, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated at Cork, the 4th Inſtant.

SIR,

Please to lay before my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty,

the accompanying letter to me from captain Fraſer of his maſteſty's ſhip Shannon, giving account of his having captured, off Cape Clear, on the 2d inſtant, a large French ſhip privateer, mounting 24 guns and 150 men, with which he arrived here laſt evening.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R. KINGSMILL.

Shannon, Cove of Cork, Feb. 3.

SIR,

I beg leave to acquaint you, that yeſterday, at three P. M. being ſix or eight leagues to the ſouthward of Cape Clear, with his maſteſty's ſhip under my command, I ſaw and gave chaſe to a ſhip in the N. E. She at firſt hoisted Engliſh colours, but on the Shannon's firing a ſhot towards her, ſhe hauled them down, hoisted the national flag, and fired her ſtern chaſes; continuing to do ſo (without effect) until the Shannon's ſhot fell far beyond her, when ſhe ſtruck her colours, and brought to at five P. M.

She is called Le Duguay Trouin, a privateer of St. Malo, commanded by citizen Legue, mounting 24 ſix pounders, ſeveral of which were thrown overboard during the chaſe, and armed with 150 men.

She ſailed from St. Malo the 3d of November, but having been forced into the river Benois, in Brittany, by bad weather, ſhe had been only eight days from thence; ſhe had taken nothing until early in the morning of the day I fell in with her, when ſhe captured the Wilding, of Liverpool, Henry Ward, maſter, from Jamaica, 23 of whoſe crew I found on board her. I have to regret the extreme hazineſs of the weather all day, which prevented any object from being ſeen at more than four or five miles diſtance, otherwiſe I think I muſt have ſeen and re-captured that ſhip;

but

but it blowing very fresh at west, it was late in the night before the prize could be secured and the prisoners shifted, which having done, I thought it necessary, from the number on board, and the state of the Shannon's rigging, which had suffered much in the late gale, to proceed for this port.

Le Duguay Trouin is 112 feet long on the gun deck, and 30 broad; she is very well found in every thing as a privateer, and sails fast. I have the honour to be, &c.

ALEX. FRASER.

Vice-Admiral Kingsmill, Cork.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of a Spanish letter of marque, of 6 guns and 17 men, by the Aurora, capt. Digby.

13. The lord mayor held a court of common council, in consequence of the requisition he received while sitting in the last court, for the purpose of considering a motion for voting a sum in aid of the voluntary contributions at the bank of England, for the defence of the country.

Mr. deputy Welch introduced the motion, observing, that at this momentous crisis, it was necessary for something more than professions to be done; he would therefore move, that the sum of 10,000l. be voted.

After several gentlemen had given their opinion on the subject, the amended motion was negatived, and the court almost unanimously agreed to vote 10,000l. and the chamberlain signed the book for the same.

The resolution was ordered to be printed in the papers.

After the court broke up, several of the aldermen and commoners subscribed their names for various sums in a book, which was produced by Mr. Kemble.

Admiralty Office, Feb. 17. This gazette gives an account of the capture of Le Mars, of Nantes, privateer, 16 guns and 220 men, by capt. lord A. Beauclerk, of the Dryad.

19. In the court of King's-bench came on before a special jury the cause of Ferguson v. Addington.

Mr. Ferguson addressed the jury, and stated, that he was plaintiff in this case against sir William Addington, and he had no doubt but he should convince the jury that a more aggravated case never came before a court of justice. The defendant had proclaimed him to his country as a violator of the laws of his country, and of having incited the people to hatred and contempt of the king's person and government. Upon this charge he had seized and imprisoned him, and treated him with every species of insult. It was unnecessary for him to state, that a charge of this kind was at all times, and under any situation, a most serious charge; but, at a moment like the present, it was infinitely more so. Party zeal and prejudice now ran so high, that a man accused of such an offence, could not expect to have his defence heard dispassionately by the public. In the peculiar situation in which he stood, such an attack might have proved his utter ruin. He had lately been called to the bar, after an opposition from some gentlemen, which he hoped, upon cool reflection, they were as able to reconcile to their consciences as he was willing to forget it. But he wished to ask the jury, how a man accused of such an offence could come into a court of justice to undertake the defence of the rights of others, and to call for the due administration of

that law, of which he was accused of being a violator? Even the noble judge upon the bench, with all his desire to do strict and impartial justice, must feel his mind in some degree prejudiced from a charge like this, because he could not be exempt from the infirmities of human nature. He trusted that no prejudice would be excited against him from the circumstance of his appearing in person to plead his own cause; but his character was involved upon this occasion, and no other person could so well state what his feelings were, and what were the motives which induced him to bring this action. If it had not been for that reason, he certainly should have profited by the eloquence and ingenuity of the learned gentleman below him (Mr. Erskine), from whose zeal and friendship he had every thing to expect. From the general interest which this case had excited, it appeared to him to be impossible that it could be raised by his individual injury, gross and aggravated as it was. The public shewed by the interest which they took in this cause, that they thought their interests and their liberties were at issue. The question for their decision was simply this, Whether a magistrate had a right, under the pretence of obeying an act of parliament, to take up an individual for exercising his rights as a free subject? With respect to the mode in which this defence was to be carried on, he begged to say one word: he did not expect to have met with so formidable an opponent as Mr. White upon this occasion. But though he saw him attending as solicitor for the defendant, he had no doubt but that the Treasury would no more pay him than they would the damages which the jury might think

proper to award in this case. But, in any capacity, Mr. White was a most formidable opponent, particularly when supported by the first law officers of the crown. Under these circumstances, it might be supposed that he felt some alarm; but he felt no kind of uneasiness, and he was sure the jury would soon be discharged from their duty. The attorney-general had, upon many occasions, stated, and particularly at the Old Bailey during the trials for high treason, that he never commenced a prosecution which his conscience did not call upon him to do; he (the attorney-general) had stated, that his character was more dear to him than all the wealth of this world, and he wished to transmit it, untainted, to his children. He believed the attorney-general was perfectly sincere in this declaration; but then it convinced him, that great misrepresentations must have been practised upon that learned and right honourable gentleman in this case, to induce him to undertake this defence. He desired the jury to consider who this defendant was; he was Sir William Addington, a person whose conduct as a justice of peace was not very immaculate. He had appeared before that court very often; and had been found guilty, at least of error. This ought to have been an additional reason to the attorney-general to have been more minute in his inquiries into the case before he undertook this defence. He requested they would recollect, that the defendant was a magistrate appointed under the authority of the act of the 32d of the king, for the prevention of felonies, &c. within the city of London and the adjacent parts. Magistrates of this kind were not in the same situation, nor had they the same duties to perform.

perform, that those independent gentlemen, who undertook that important office, had; and it was rather singular to observe, that this act, for the first time, introduced the words *fit and able men*, as the persons who were to fill that office; in this they had deviated from the good old practice of our ancestors, who, when they were describing the necessary qualifications of a magistrate, used the terms *good, lawful, and worthy men*. The words *fit and able* were rather singular to apply to a magistrate. It might be very proper to say, a fit and able soldier, a fit and able sailor, or even a fit and able hangman; but surely it was an expression that, of all others, did not belong to a justice of the peace.

Mr. Ferguson then proceeded to read several extracts from the statutes of Edward the 3d and Richard the 2d, relating to the office of justice of the peace. He said, he read those extracts to shew, that those justices were not what they were required to be by the old law of this country, and to convince juries that they ought to be much more jealous of such men as these, than they ought to be of independent gentlemen, who took that troublesome office without any pecuniary object whatever. Upon this subject he begged to read an extract from Blackstone's Commentaries, which treats of the danger of having improper characters in that situation. These were all the observations he should make with respect to this defendant, and would leave it to the jury to draw their own conclusion from what he had said. He would now state to the jury the circumstances of this case: in the first place, he should state to the jury, that the act under which the defendant

pretended to have acted was an act of the 36th of the present king, better known by the name of the "bill for the better prevention of sedition," &c. With respect to this and the other treason bill, he should not now say one word—it the eloquence of the best and greatest man this country had produced, and who had now retired after many ineffectual efforts for the safety of the country, had proved useless, and had had no weight upon the country, it would be highly improper for him to intrude any observations upon the court; but whatever infringement this bill had made upon the liberties of the people, still he admitted that if the defendant had acted fairly upon it, then this action could not have been maintained. This act gave great powers to magistrates. No meeting could be held unless a public and specific notice of it was given; and the magistrates have authority to disperse any meeting assembled in consequence of the notice, in certain cases. The clause which applied to his case was the 7th, which enacts, that if any person shall wilfully and *seditionally* maintain any proposition, or hold any discourse, tending to turn into contempt, or excite discontent against his majesty's person and government, the magistrates who may be present are authorized to take him into custody. It was for the jury to consider whether he had been guilty of this offence; and, if he had not been guilty, to give such damages as in their judgment the justice of the case required.

He should now proceed to state the circumstances of this case:—There was an advertisement of the London corresponding society, inserted in an evening paper, and signed by seven householders. He
was

was not a member of that society, but he had the highest esteem for it, on account of its uniform endeavours to procure a reform in parliament upon the principle of universal suffrage and annual parliaments. There was nothing in that advertisement to which any honest man could hesitate to sign his name. After this advertisement had been published, a hand-bill from the magistrates of Bow-street was posted up, declaring such intended meeting to be illegal; but he apprehended such a declaration had not the power of making it illegal, if the meeting in itself was not so. The executive committee of the corresponding society, who were anxious in every respect to conform to the law, sent to the police-office, in Bow-street, to know upon what ground this meeting was declared to be illegal, but they were not informed. The meeting was held upon the 31st of July, and he would prove to the satisfaction of the jury, that so far from having said or done any thing at that meeting which could be construed into sedition, there was not a single part of his conduct which would not convince them that his whole object was to make the people act peaceably, and disperse when they were called upon so to do. To prove that this was the tenor of his conduct, he would call a Mr. Law, a man as respectable as any who then heard him. Mr. Ferguson then proceeded to state what Mr. Law would prove, but as Mr. Law was afterwards examined, we think it unnecessary to detail the whole of it twice.

During the time he was in the field, there was a rumour that the proclamation had been read in another part of the field: he made inquiry into this fact, and being in-

formed that it was so, he then advised the people to disperse, and said there could be no good in having thousands of good citizens butchered. Much stress might be laid on the word butchered, but certainly without justice; for he used it as a strong argument to induce the people to disperse quietly. But even if, in the warmth of public speaking, or from the feelings that animated him at that moment, he had used a strong expression, it would not be sufficient to inculpate him, because the act required that they should be spoken wilfully. When he used that expression, no notice of it was taken by the defendant; on the contrary, he said, "that is right, sir, that is right, sir; you speak like a man." But afterwards, when he said, "We shall soon see, citizens, whether the magistrates of Bow-street are the interpreters of the law of England," the defendant immediately called out, "seize that fellow!" and his orders were obeyed. In considering how his conduct fell within the meaning of the sedition bill, in which, for the first time, were used the words *government* and *constitution*, it would be necessary to consider the meaning of those two words.—If the government and constitution were to be separated, and the former was to be taken to mean the king's ministers, then, indeed, there would be an end to all our liberty.

Mr. F. was proceeding to put cases in which men might find fault with ministers, when he was interrupted by

Lord Kenyon, who said, the plaintiff ought not to make his own defence the means of unnecessarily abusing others.

Mr. Ferguson contended, that he was only shewing what the consequence

quence of this act would be, if so large an interpretation were given to it. With regard to the constitution, which, though mentioned in this act of parliament, had never before been referred to in any statute, it was not so easy to describe it. The only thing like an act of parliament, in which the constitution was mentioned, was the declaration of king William at the glorious period of the revolution.—He should therefore endeavour to shew what the constitution was, by reading what our ancestors thought were infringements of it.

[Mr. Ferguson here proceeded to read the preamble of the Bill of Rights.]

“Whereas the late king James the Second, by the assistance of divers evil counsellors, judges, and ministers, by him did endeavour to subvert and extirpate the protestant religion and the laws and liberties of this kingdom: by assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws, and the execution of the laws, without consent of a parliament: by committing and prosecuting divers worthy prelates, for humbly petitioning to be excused from concurring to the said assumed power: by issuing, and causing to be executed, a commission under the great seal, for erecting a court, called the court of commission for ecclesiastical affairs: by levying money for and to the use of the crown, by pretence of prerogative, for other time, and other manner, than the same was granted by parliament: by raising and keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, without consent of parliament; and quartering soldiers, contrary to law: by causing several good subjects, being protestants, to be disarmed, at the same time when pa-

pists were both armed and employed, contrary to law: by violating the freedom of elections of members to serve in parliament: by prosecution in the court of king's bench, for matters and causes only cognizable in parliament; and by divers other arbitrary and illegal courses.

“And whereas, of late years, partial, corrupt, and unqualified persons have been returned and served on juries in trials, and particularly divers jurors in trials for high treason which were not freeholders: and excessive bail hath been required of persons committed in criminal cases, to elude the benefit of the laws made for the liberty of the subject: and excessive fines have been imposed: and illegal and cruel punishments inflicted: and several grants and promises made of fines and forfeitures, before any conviction or judgment against the persons upon whom the same were to be levied.—All which are utterly and directly contrary to the known laws and statutes, and freedom of this realm.”

He hoped that the word *constitution* had not been inserted in the act of parliament to which he had referred, in order to deceive the people. The rights and liberties of the people were a part of the constitution; and he who said any thing against them was guilty of bringing them into contempt, and was liable to punishment by this act.

He assured the jury, that he felt himself unconcerned as to the event of this case, except in as much as upon it depended, in a very essential degree, the liberty of the subject. The jury were infinitely more concerned than he was; and whatever the event of it might be, he should have the satisfaction of thinking that he had done his duty.

ty. He would now leave this case to the decision of the jury, and he trusted they would return such a verdict as would satisfy their country, whose rights they were bound to maintain — their conscience, whose dictates they could not spurn with impunity—and their God, in whose name they had sworn to do justice.

He then called Mr. Law, but

The attorney-general said, he ought first to prove the notice required by act of parliament to be given to magistrates; but having requested permission to proceed with the other part of his evidence,

Lord Kenyon gave him permission.

He then called

Mr. Law, who premised his evidence by saying, he did not belong to the London corresponding society, nor was he acquainted with the plaintiff. He was present in the field on the 31st of July. He saw the defendant getting upon the stand, or tribune, and taking out his watch. At one o'clock they began business: there were signals displayed from the three stands, or tribunes, by a handkerchief. The business began by reading the advertisement, and the address to the nation: having gone on for about ten minutes, there was a noise among the people, that the proclamation had been read in another part of the field. The first expression he (witness) heard the plaintiff use to the defendant was, "has the proclamation been read?" The answer was, "that is your business, sir, not mine." After a short period had elapsed, some people called out that it had been read. The plaintiff then addressed himself to the surrounding crowd, and said, "Citizens, I recommend it to you to disperse, and return peaceably

"home; it will be a pity that honest inoffensive men should be butchered." The defendant said, "you are right, sir." The plaintiff said, "Citizens, be assured that we shall soon know, whether the Bow-street magistrates are to be the interpreters of the law of England." The defendant then called out, "take that fellow into custody!" The plaintiff was taken out of the tribune, and by accident got a hurt in the eye.

Arch. Ruthin was at the Brown Bear when the plaintiff was in custody: the witness received an order to take a letter from the plaintiff, but desired him previously to seal it: the plaintiff said it was of a private nature. The witness delivered the letter to the magistrates at Bow-street, Mr. Ford and the defendant; the letter was opened by the defendant. Upon his cross-examination he said the plaintiff had assented to the letter being opened.

The plaintiff then called

Mr. L. Kyd, the barrister, who said the plaintiff had sent for him to attend him at Bow-street. He remembered a private letter having been taken up by the defendant, who addressed the plaintiff, and put some question to him respecting the nature of the letter; the plaintiff said it was of a private nature.—Some conversation then passed, which the witness did not recollect, and at last the letter was opened by the authority of the defendant, who took upon himself that if it was of a private nature it should be returned. The plaintiff gave no authority for its being opened; it was opened and returned; it was a French one. On his cross-examination by Mr. Law, he said that he saw the plaintiff did not object to its being opened, and it was understood, that if it was of a private nature

nature it should not go further than the magistrates.

Mr. Clarkson, attorney for the plaintiff, then proved the notice served on the defendant.

The attorney-general said, he was not surpris'd that this cause was not tried in the usual way.

The act of parliament, however, required that it should contain the ground of the action, and no evidence should be received that did not apply to the charge contained in the notice; therefore, it was clear that the notice ought to have been proved first.

Lord Kenyon said, he was sorry the attorney-general had not referred him to the words of the act before, for he was now convinced he had acted wrong in suffering the other evidence to be given first.

The attorney-general then stated, that the act required that the name and residence of the attorney for the plaintiff should be stated on the back of the notice, which was not done in the present instance.

Mr. Ferguson said, the notice complied with the spirit of the act.

Lord Kenyon said, the words of the act were express, and he could not deviate from them. He ought to erase the notes which he had taken. He was aware, when he took them, that he was doing that which he should hardly have done if the plaintiff had employed counsel. He should always be glad to grant indulgence to any person who came to complain of an injury, but in the present case, the positive words of the act of parliament must be complied with. His lordship said he recollected that Mr. justice Yates used to say that this act ought to be complied with in the strictest manner, because it was the only rule the magistrates had

for their conduct. Upon the whole, he was clearly of opinion that this objection could not be got over, and therefore the plaintiff must be nonsuited.

20. This gazette contains an account of the capture of *Le Jason* privateer, of Nantes, 12 guns and 108 men, by capt. Durham, of the *Anson*; also of *La Branche d'Olive*, French merchant brig, and *Le Cultivateur de Rochelle* brig, and an armed *chasse-marée*, by capt. Herbert of the *Amelia*.

28. Some labourers digging for limestone on the summit of a cliff near Penarth Point, in the county of Glamorgan, discovered the remains of four human bodies, lying about five feet beneath the surface of the earth: two large stones were placed edge-ways, one on each side, and a third on the top, forming something like a coffin. How long they have lain there, no conjecture can be formed; several teeth were perfect, but the bones mouldering into dust; the appearance of four skulls certified that so many bodies were placed as it were in one coffin. In the course of the two following days the remains of three more bodies were found nearly on the same spot. By the direction of Thomas Bridges, esq. of Kymmin cottage, the bones were all carefully collected, deposited in a wooden case, and decently interred in the church-yard at Penarth.

This day came on, to be heard before sir W. Scott, a cause that much attracted the attention of the court, inasmuch as it was connected with the new law of divorce in France. This suit was instituted by Mr. Woodmason against his wife, to obtain a divorce *a mensa et thoro*, on a charge of an adulterous intercourse with a person of the name of Freeborn. The plaintiff

and

and his wife were both natives of France, but left that country at an early period of their lives, and came to England. In 1771, the plaintiff paid his addresses to the defendant, and they intermarried in the subsequent month of February. This marriage was proved by a person who was a witness to the ceremony, and also by the confession of the defendant herself: it was solemnized in England. Mr. Woodmason was much older than his wife: for some time after the marriage, they resided at Battersea, and from thence removed to Leadenhall-street. In 1789, the defendant left England, and went, accompanied by a relation, to Paris, where she resided with her father and mother for some years; during all this period she had a separate maintenance allowed by the plaintiff, who continued to reside in London. In 1795 she returned to London, for the purpose of procuring from the plaintiff an additional allowance. On this occasion she continued in London for about seven weeks; but during this period she did not cohabit with the plaintiff. She then returned to Paris, and in a short time afterwards sent a letter to a relation in England, stating, among other things, that she was going to be divorced from the plaintiff by the law of France, and to marry a Mr. Freeborn. Proceedings for a decree of divorce were soon afterwards had in the marriage court in Paris, and a sentence of separation pronounced according to the French law. Evidence was also adduced to prove that the defendant and Mr. Freeborn cohabited together; and that, in consequence of the before-mentioned sentence, she constantly acknowledged him to be her husband. After the civilians were heard on both sides, the learned

judge observed, that the evidence adduced in this case had satisfactorily proved that Mrs. Woodmason had lived in France with Mr. Freeborn on the footing of a matrimonial connexion, and that a divorce had actually taken place by the existing laws of that country. Under these circumstances, sir William was clearly of opinion, that the plaintiff had established a case that entitled him to a sentence of divorce from bed and board, which the learned judge accordingly pronounced in the usual form.

MARCH.

1. This day, about half past three o'clock, the following persons were brought to town from Margate, where they had been apprehended on suspicion of holding a treasonable correspondence with the French government: Arthur O'Connor, esq. proprietor of a Dublin newspaper, called the *Press*; John Binns, one of the members of the corresponding society, a secretary to a division, and the same who was tried at Warwick in August last [see our last vol. p. (130)] for sedition; James Fevey, alias Quigley, alias captain Jones, alias col. Morris; John Allen, a native of Ireland; and Jeremiah or Patrick Leary, servant to Mr. O'Connor.—See March 8.

Admiralty Office, March 3.

The following letter was received at this office, through the hands of Capt. M'Douall, commanding at Yarmouth, from Lieutenant Treble.

His Majesty's armed cutter Cobourg,
SIR, *February 26.*

I have the honour to inform you, that yesterday morning, at seven o'clock, having Cromer bearing S. 67 W. distant 16 leagues, we fell in with, and, after nine hours chase, (during which we ran one hundred miles,

miles, one half the time blowing a hard gale of wind at W. N. W.), we came up alongside and captured *La Revaches* French lugger privateer, of 16 guns and 62 men, after a running fight of two hours, close alongside.

She attempted to board us twice, but being repulsed, and a well-directed broadside having brought her main and mizen masts by the board, and shot her fore yard away, they called for quarter.

We had no sooner taken possession of her, than, with the utmost difficulty, and all the exertion we possibly could make use of in getting the prisoners shifted, and our own people back, when she sunk, having received above forty shot between wind and water. She had seven men killed and eight wounded.—I am happy to add, we had only two men slightly wounded; the damage we sustained is mostly in our masts, spars, sails, and rigging. She was a remarkable fine fast sailing vessel, had only cruized six days, entirely new, fitted out for a month's cruise, and the largest lugger that sailed out of Calais.

I am particularly indebted to Mr. Jeffery, master, and Mr. Rolf, mate, for their attention, assiduity, and prompt execution of my orders, as well as all the officers and crew, who deserve the highest commendation for their alacrity in knotting, splicing, and shifting sail in variable weather, and through a variety of courses, having been exposed to a sharp and well-directed fire from the stern chases and musquetry for near two hours before the action commenced.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES WEBB.

Robert McDouall, esq.

This Gazette also contains accounts of the capture of *La Legere*

French privateer, out twenty days from L'Orient, and bound to the West Indies, mounting 14 eight pounders, and 4 thirty-two pound carronades, and 130 men; and an American ship, called *Eliza*, from Boston to Amsterdam, which had been taken by a French privateer; both by his majesty's ship *Phaeton*, captain Robert Stopford;—also, *Le Pour Epie* French lugger privateer, mounting 4 fwivels, with 17 men, by the *Resolution* lugger, Mr. Broad.

Admiralty Office, March 5.

This Gazette contains accounts of the captures of *L'Alexandrine* French lugger privateer, carrying 4 fwivels, 1 carriage gun, and 28 men, by his majesty's ship *Charon*, captain Manby; and *La Souffleur*, mounting 4 carriage guns, 2 fwivels, and 40 men, by the *Cameleon*, captain Bowyer.

Admiralty Office, March 6.

Extract of a Letter from Admiral Sir Peter Parker, Bart. Commander in Chief of His Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Portsmouth, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated the 4th instant.

Inclosed is a letter from captain Bowyer, of the *Cameleon* sloop, which I received this morning by the officer who brought in *La Souffleur* French privateer, captured by the said sloop on the 2d instant.

Cameleon, March 3, 1798.

SIR,

I beg leave to inform you, that, on Thursday the 1st of March, at ten A. M. *Guernsey* bearing south eight leagues, I observed a cutter, gave chase, and at half past five P. M. it falling little wind, and by the help of her oars she escaped under the forts on the Isle of Bas. If I had got three leagues more distance to run I should have captured her. At three A. M. of the 2d, saw a cutter,

cutter, gave chase, and at four took possession of her. She proves to be the Souffleur, thirteen days from Cherbourg, mounting four carriage guns, two swivels, and 40 men, and having captured this cruise the vessels as underneath, three of the masters being on board me; and I am in hopes to retake some of those vessels, the wind being south. I have, &c. R. R. BOWYER.

P. S. I have sent the privateer into port, and going in chase.

Peggy sloop of Cardigan, James Prichard, master, from Dover to Penzance, with wheat and barley.

Camilla brig, John M'Kenzie, master, from Hull to Plymouth, with coals.

Delaval, Charles Mann, master, from Sunderland, laden with coals, bound to Plymouth.

Betsey, of Guernsey, Thomas Townsend, master, from Guernsey, bound to Plymouth, with wine.

7. From the account of Fanny Martin, wife of the boatswain, now at New York, it appears, that the mutiny which took place on board the Hermione frigate, in August last, and of which very imperfect accounts have reached this country, was headed by William Farmer, the master's mate; that the captain, nine officers, and a lieutenant of marines, were murdered and thrown overboard; that a few days afterwards, the vessel got into Lagaira, from whence she was permitted by the governor to go to that city.—Officers murdered, captain Pigot, lieutenants Spriggs, Douglas, Fenshaw; Mr. Percy, purser; Dr. Sansom; Mr. Manning, captain's clerk; Mr. Smith, midshipman; Mr. Martin, boatswain; and a lieutenant of marines, name forgot.

8. The members of his majesty's most honourable privy council met

yesterday at eleven o'clock, and O'Connor, Binns, Fevey, and Allen, were brought up to be examined. Warrants were on Monday night issued for the apprehension of several persons who were thought to be implicated with the above-named prisoners; and a Mr. B. of Charter-house square; a Mr. Burnham, of Hampstead; and a Mr. Evans, of Plough-court, Fetterlane, were taken into custody. The officers went to the house of Mr. Evans yesterday morning, who appears to be secretary of the corresponding society, and at whose house they usually held their meetings, and where the prisoners, Fevey, Binns, and Allen lodged; the two latter in the apartments of a Mr. and Mrs. Smith, who were examined to prove their having lodged in the apartments which they occupied of Mr. Evans. This house having been searched, several letters were found, directed from Fevey, *alias* colonel Morris, who then went by the name of Jones; but, during his absence from England, while in Ireland, to which place he accompanied the brother of Binns, he assumed the title of Captain, and afterwards that of Colonel. The papers seized were examined; and the meeting adjourned till seven in the evening. On the council assembling again, Mr. B's papers, of Charter-house square, were examined, and himself called in; but, nothing appearing against this gentleman, he was discharged, and his papers given up to him. At eight this morning, O'Connor, Binns, Fevey, and Allen, were conveyed under the care of his majesty's messengers, and several of the police officers, to the Tower, where they were received by four wardens and a serjeant's guard, and placed in separate apartments.

ments. Mr. O'Connor appeared much dejected, and scarcely spoke to any of the persons who were conveying him to the state prison. Leary, the servant of Mr. O'Connor, was at the same time sent, under the care of Mr. East, to the house of correction, in Cold-Bath fields.—(See March 1.)

Admiralty Office, March 10, 1798.

A list of Vessels captured by his Majesty's ship *Dædalus* and *Hornet* sloop, under command of Henry Lidgbird Ball, Esq.

Snow Rebecca (American), from Charleston in America, bound to the Island of Goree; part of her cargo, pitch, tar, dry goods, tobacco, coffee, melasses, and gunpowder. The naval stores and gunpowder taken out and landed at this port, and the vessel liberated.

Ship *President* (American bottom with an English cargo) bound to Goree, taken by the enemy off the Islands de Lofs, and re-captured off the mouth of the river Gambia; laden with salt. Vessel and cargo returned to the owner here, on salvage being paid.

Ship *Quaker* (late belonging to Liverpool, retaken), 260 tons, 10 guns, 36 men, trading on the coast, bound to the Island of Goree, laden with merchandize, and 337 slaves.

Sloop *Ocean*, retaken, late belonging to the Sierra Leone Company, from Goree, having been trading on the coast, bound to the Island of Goree; laden with cloth, iron beads, and ten slaves.

Schooner *La Prosperité* (French), from Goree, bound to Goree, laden with Guinea corn. Disposed of here.

Armed ship *Bell*, 20 guns, destroyed at Goree.

(Signed)

H. L. BALL.

1798.

Admiralty Office, March 13, 1798.

Extract of a letter from Vice-Admiral Kingsmill, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels on the Coast of Ireland, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated at Cork the 4th instant.

The Greyhound captured a Spanish ship, named *La Pesta de Buenos Ayres*, laden with hides and tallow, from Monte Video to Bilbao, which stood into the convoy. She is brought in here by the *Magnanime*, along with the *James of Liverpool*, outward-bound Guinea-man, which having beaten off one French privateer, had since stood an action of an hour and an half with another, but was captured after losing her master and boat-swain, who were killed, and had two seamen wounded, one of whom is since dead. This ship was recaptured by the *Magnanime* on the 28th ult. in lat. 45 deg. 52 min. lon. 11 deg. 7 min.

13. In consequence of a hackney coach being found standing at a very early hour near the Methodist burying-ground in Tottenham-court road, with the dead body of a child in it, an alarm was given, and upon a general search in that ground, it was discovered that great quantities of bodies had been from time to time removed, for the purposes of dissection.

14. Forgeries of a new description were discovered at the Bank, of which some accounts will be given hereafter in the trials of Messrs. Adamson and Wilkinson.

19. This morning about ten o'clock, Mr. Barrett of Cheap-side, a wholesale dealer in the Manchester line, was apprehended by Lawrence, a city marshal's man, at the Cross Keys, Blackfriars Bridge, on a charge of having forged several bills on the house of

(C)

Mr.

Mr. Seanfield, in Watling-street, who is also in the Manchester line. He was taken to the Poultry Compter; whence he sent to the lord mayor, requesting he would indulge him with a private hearing, to which his lordship consented.—His examination came on at seven in the evening; previous to which, two officers were sent to his house by his lordship, to seize all his papers and letters, as it was expected that some important matters would be developed respecting certain forgeries in which Messrs. Adamson, Wilkinson, and Karana, are involved; which turning out to be the fact, he was removed to prison. Two officers each took hold of an arm till they arrived at the gate of the compter; when the turnkey went forward to open it, and left the prisoner with his partner. Mr. Barrett availed himself of the moment, made a sudden spring from under his arm, and effected his escape. The cry of ‘Stop thief’ resounded from every quarter; but the prisoner’s voice was among the loudest: he directed his course down Walbrook; but such a confusion ensued, that no one laying hold of the right person, (though many were stopped) he got clear off.

Admiralty Office, March 20.

The London Gazette contains an account of the capture of La Sophie French cutter privateer, of four guns and twenty men, belonging to St. Maloes, by his majesty’s cutter Telemachus, lieutenant Thomas Newton.

30. This day Thomas Cadell, esq. was unanimously elected alderman of Walbrook ward, in the room of William Gil, esq.

Admiralty Office, March 31.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent, Commander in Chief of His Majesty’s Ships

and Vessels on the Coast of Portugal, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Ville de Paris, at sea, the 21st of February, 1798.

SIR,

You will herewith receive letters from capt. lord Henry Powlett, of his majesty’s ship the Thalia, and capt. Downman, of the Speedy sloop, the first giving an account of the capture of a French privateer, and the latter detailing an action between the Speedy and another of the enemy’s privateers, which does great honour to her captain, officers, and company.

I am, &c. ST. VINCENT.

Thalia at Sea, February 6, 1798.

On the 5th instant, at four, A. M. Cape Finisterre bearing S. W. twenty leagues, I came up with and captured the Antoine French privateer brig, mounting 16 guns and having 70 men: she was returning from a cruise to Rochelle, having captured five neutral vessels. I remain, Sir, &c. H. POWLETT.

Speedy, Tago, February 16, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that on the 3d instant, at daylight, being seventeen leagues west of Vigo, we discovered a brig bearing down on us with all sail set.—At three P. M. being within half a mile of us, she hauled her wind, and opened her fire: on which we made all sail to close, engaging her until half past five, when she tacked, and made sail from us. I immediately tacked, continuing to engage till half past seven, when, from her advantage of sailing and little wind, she got out of gunshot. Owing to the great swell, we received little damage, having only our fore top-mast shot through, with some of the running rigging cut. It falling calm, and the vessels separating against all our efforts with.

with the sweeps, I had the mortification, about twelve o'clock, to see her fire several guns at our prize that we had taken the day before. Owing to the good conduct of the master, who, with 12 men, were on board the prize, battened down twenty-six Spaniards, and made their escape in a small boat. At day-light a breeze of wind sprung up, which enabled us to fetch her. At eight o'clock she, being within gun-shot, tacked, and made all sail from us, rowing with her sweeps at the same time. We chased her until noon, when they finding she had the heels of us, shortened sail, wore, and stood towards us, with a red flag flying at the main top-gallant-mast head. At half past twelve, being within pistol-shot, we began to engage her, with the wind upon the larboard quarter. At two observing her fire to slacken, I thought it a good opportunity to lay her on board, but at that instant she wore, and came to the wind on the starboard tack; but finding us close upon her starboard quarter, and from our braces and bow-lines being shot away, our yard coming square, she took the opportunity to put before the wind, and made all sail from us. We immediately wore after her, firing musquetry at each other for twenty minutes, and so soon as the lower mast was secured, set our fudding sails, and continued the chase until seven P. M. when we lost sight of her, from her superior sailing. I then hauled our wind, and made short tacks all night to fall in with our prize; at day-light saw her to windward; at ten P. M. retook her, with ten Frenchmen on board. I learn from the prize-master, the brig is called the *Papillon*, 360 tons burden, pierced for 18 guns, mounting 14, four twelve and ten

nine-pounders, manned with 160 men. We had five men killed, and four badly wounded. I have to regret the loss of lieutenant Dutton, and Mr. Johnston, boatswain, amongst the killed. I beg leave to recommend to your lordship's notice Mr. Marshall, master, for his good conduct during the action. Every praise is due to the ship's company for their good behaviour. All our lower masts, bowsprit, main boom, both top-masts, and most of the yards shot through, with all the standing and running rigging cut, I thought proper to put into Lisbon to repair our damage. I have, &c.

HUGH DOWNMAN.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Wallis, Commander of his Majesty's Ship *Proserpine*, to Vice-Admiral Sir Richard Onslow, Bart. dated Yarmouth Roads, the 29th of March, 1798.

I have the honour to inform you, that his majesty's ship under my command anchored here this evening. On Monday morning last, St. Abb's head bearing south-west 12 or 14 leagues, I fell in with a Dutch galliot, bound from Rotterdam to Altona, ten days out. Finding him close on wind, which was then at north-west by west, I was well assured he could not be bound to Altona, and have an idea that he was bound north about to France; and having neither brief, register, nor any paper to warrant his being on the coast of Scotland, I have thought proper to bring him in here: he now says he was bound to Montrose, and that he promised an Englishman at Rotterdam to carry the cargo there; he has no paper of any kind to shew any such transaction. The vessel was built in Holland last year, and the master of her says she belongs to himself and a gentleman at Limburg. He

(the master) has been a prisoner in England eighteen months of this war, and was taken commanding a Dutch vessel. He and his ship's company are all natives of Holland. Under these circumstances I have no doubt but both the vessel and cargo ought to be condemned.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Sir John Borlase Warren, K. B. Captain of his Majesty's Ship Canada, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Pertuis d'Antioche, March 14, 1798.

I beg leave to inform you, that on the night of the 13th instant, I stood into the Pertuis d'Antioche with his majesty's ships under my orders; and anchored near Basque Road; and have the satisfaction of acquainting you, that the boats of the squadron captured the vessels mentioned on the list which accompanies this letter.

The list of captures contains five brigs and four chasse-marées, bound from Bordeaux to Rochefort, laden with wine, brandy, &c.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of Le Chasseur barque French privateer, belonging to Bayonne, of 16 guns; also of his majesty's ship Echo having driven on shore, to the northward of Camperdown, and destroyed a French cutter privateer, mounting 10 guns.

31. Thomas Raikes, esq. and Samuel Thornton, esq. were chosen governor and deputy governor of the Bank of England for the year ensuing.

APRIL.

Admiralty Office, April 2, 1798.

A Letter, of which the following is a Copy, from Captain Sir J. B. Warren, of His Majesty's Ship Canada, to Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. Commander in Chief,

&c. &c. has been received at this Office.

*Canada, Plymouth Sound,
SIR, March 30, 1798.*

I beg leave to inform your lordship, that on the 22d instant, at seven A.M. the Anson having discovered a sail in the east quarter, which appeared to be a large frigate, I made the signal for a general chase, and continued the pursuit, with variable winds, until half past twelve at midnight, when captain Stopford, in the Phaëton, brought her to action. The enemy endeavoured to escape into the river Garonne, but struck upon the Olive Rocks, near the Cordovan Light House; she was left by most of her crew, who had previously thrown her guns overboard. The ship being bilged, and having otherwise suffered much, it is probable, from the situation she remained in, it will not be easy to get her off. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN WARREN.

Copy of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. Commander in Chief of His Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Jamaica, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Queen, in Port Royal Harbour, January 9.

SIR,

Having yesterday received a letter from captain Ricketts, of his majesty's ship Magicienne, giving an account of his having, with the ships under his command, attacked and captured the vessels therein mentioned, in Guadilla bay in the island of Porto Rico, and under the protection of the enemy's forts; I transmit herewith a copy of the said letter, for the information of the right hon. lords commissioners of the Admiralty, who, I am confident, will with me highly approve of his gallant conduct, as well as that of the captains,

captains, officers, seamen, and marines, under his command.

H. PARKER.

La Magicienne, off the Isle of
SIR, *Zachu, Dec. 28.*

Having received information that several brigs and schooners belonging to the enemy were in Guadilla Bay in the island of Porto Rico, I proceeded there, with the king's ships named in the margin *. On the 27th at noon, we anchored close abreast of the forts; and, after an hour and a half cannonading, captured every vessel under their protection. To captain Carthew I am indebted for the gallant and able support that I on this occasion met with (as well as on many others since the *Regulus* has been under my orders). Captain Mends, who commanded the boats that took possession of the vessels, executed that service much to his own honour, and highly to my approbation. Indeed every officer and man belonging to the squadron is fully entitled to my best thanks and praises. I am, &c.

W. H. RICKETTS.

La Magicienne, 5 wounded;
Regulus, none killed or wounded;
Diligence, 1 wounded.

Vessels captured in Guadilla Bay; *Le Brutus* privateer, of 9 guns; one ship, three brigs, and one schooner.

Extract of another Letter from Vice-Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board His Majesty's Ship *Queen*, in Port-Royal Harbour, January 1.

I am to desire you will be pleased to acquaint the right hon. the lords commissioners of the Admiralty, that, since my letter of the 29th October, the French corvette *La Republique Triomphante*, of 14

guns and 110 men, has been captured by his majesty's ships *Severn* and *Pelican*.

3. The *Pallas* arrived in Plymouth Sound from a cruise off the coast of France. Soon after she had anchored, a heavy gale of wind came on from the S. by W. attended with a most tremendous sea, which continued with increasing violence until about seven o'clock on Wednesday morning, when she parted from one of her anchors, and drove much nearer to the shore before her other anchors could bring her up. The yards and top-masts were then struck, and she rode with an apparent degree of safety until half past eight, when she again began to drive. The crew now cut away all her masts, to prevent her holding so much wind; but notwithstanding all their exertions, she did not bring up, though with three anchors ahead, until the after part struck on the rocks in the Bay, between Withy Hedge and Mount Batten Point.—The tide, by this time, was at strong ebb, and the ship remained with her head to the sea, being kept in that situation by means of her cables and anchors, until a quarter past three o'clock; the sea making a free and tremendous break over her. Though now quite aground abaft, the sea raised her forepart so much, that the cables parted, and the surf heaving her broadside round, beat against her with so much fury, that she was every minute completely hid from the view of the spectators.—While she lay in this situation, every hope of the crew being saved seemed at an end; but providentially, from the circumstance of her drawing less water forward than abaft, every succeeding surf forced her bow round

* *La Magicienne*, *Regulus*, *Diligence*.

nearer to the land, until she got again nearly end on with her stern to the sea. The hope of the ship holding together, and the prospect of a chance that the crew might be able to save their lives, were now revived, especially as the tide was ebbing very fast. The ship being quite aground fore and aft, she was thus made to heel towards the shore, and by the latter fortunate circumstance the crew were sheltered from the violent beat of the sea, and exposed only to the spray which every minute formed a cloud over them. In this state the ship lay till eleven o'clock, when the crew were out of danger, and by noon the tide had left her so as to enable the officers and men to get ashore with safety. The gale abated about one, and the crew, with the people from the dock-yard, began to get out the stores, the greater part of which will be saved. A more melancholy scene, for at least two hours, could not be witnessed, as no other prospect appeared during that time than the loss of the whole crew, because, in their then situation, no assistance could possibly be given to them, either on the land or sea side. On board the Pallas one man only lost his life, and he was killed by the fall of the main-mast. The ship was reduced to such a state of wreck, that she could not be got off, and it was expected she would fall to pieces the next flood tide.

A boat belonging to the Canada, in attempting to go to the relief of the Pallas, was upset, and Mr. Massey, acting lieutenant of the Canada, and three seamen, were unfortunately drowned.

1. As John Mellish, esq. of Albemarle-street, St. James's, and Hammett's, Hertfordshire, was returning to town from following the royal hounds, with his friends, Mr.

Joseph Bosanquet and Mr. ——— Poole, in a chaise and four, they were stopped on Hounslow Heath by three highwaymen, who, after robbing them, without resistance, of their money and gold watches, fired wantonly into the chaise as they went off; the ball, supposed to be fired by the third villain, after the robbery was committed, penetrated Mr. M's forehead, just below his hat, and was believed to have found its way down towards the back of his neck, so that it was impossible for the united skill of Messrs. Rush, Blizard, and Cline, who attended him, to extract it. In this situation it was supposed to have remained, without any visible effect on Mr. M's health; who immediately executed his will, and was, till Sunday thereafter, perfectly composed. A delirium and violent fever then came on, in which he continued till five in the morning, when he died. His head was opened by the surgeons, but no ball could be found; whence it is conjectured to have dropped out shortly after he was wounded. The brain had received a very violent contusion. The murderers afterwards stopped Mr. Frogley, the surgeon who was sent for; and not only robbed him, but obliged him to turn back from his errand, which they made him tell, so that he was forced to return in a hired carriage.

Admiralty Office, April 10.

Extract of a letter from Captain Gunter, of his Majesty's sloop Nautilus, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated at Sea, April 4.

SIR,

Be pleased to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that at noon this day, 12 leagues to the eastward of Scarborough, I felt in with two French privateers, a brig, and a schooner; and, after a chase of six hours, I captured the brig

brig *Legere*, three days from Dun-
kirk, with 15 guns on board
(pierced for 16), and 60 men. On
my getting near them they parted,
when I made the *Narcissus*'s signal
to chase the schooner, but without
success, as she escaped by superior
sailing.

Enclosure from Sir Edward Pellew,
to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Fal-
mouth, April 7.

Cleopatra, Falmouth, April 6.

SIR,

After separation from Sir Edward
Pellew, I had the good fortune, on
the 26th ult. at half past two in the
morning, to discover a ship stand-
ing to the northward, and immedi-
ately gave chase, and in an hour
and a half came alongside, and, af-
ter giving her all our larboard guns,
she struck, and proved to be the
Emilie French ship privateer, en-
razée, a very fast sailer, from l'O-
rient, mounting 16 six-pounders
and 2 brass twelves, manned with
110 men, out 39 days.

ISRAEL PELLEW.

*Babet, Fort Royal Bay, Mar-
tinique, Jan. 17.*

SIR,

It is with great pleasure I ac-
quaint you that Lieut. Pym yester-
day afternoon captured (in the pin-
nace, the launch following), after a
most desperate resistance, the French
republican schooner *la Désirée*,
mounting 6 carriage guns, and hav-
ing on board 46 men. I discovered
her in the morning, half way be-
tween Martinique and Dominique,
standing towards me; soon after
the wind died away; and she, hav-
ing made us out distinctly, took to
her sweeps, and rowed off; which
Lieutenant Pym observing, volun-
teered attacking her in the boats.
To this I alone consented from
the knowledge I had of his resolu-
tion and good conduct. The two

boats contained but 24 men; he
was three leagues from the ship,
and had been rowing four hours
before he got within reach of their
cannon; from which they kept up
an incessant firing till he boarded.
He reports that the officers and
men under him behaved with the
greatest coolness and intrepidity. I
am sorry to add that we lost a very
valuable seaman, and had five
wounded; amongst the latter a Mr.
Ainsworth, a young gentleman of
very promising expectations, and a
volunteer on the occasion. The
enemy had 3 killed, and 15 badly
wounded. She had been out six
days from Guadaloupe, and had
taken one American brig from St.
Vincent, bound to Boston.

J. MAINWARING.

[This gazette also contains an
account of the following captures:
viz. *Le Lynx* privateer, of 18 guns
and 70 men, by Capt. Pierrepont,
of the King's-fisher; the *St. Joze*
Spanish lugger, 6 guns, 44 men, by
Capt. Downman, of the *Speedy*;
Le Cæsar privateer, 16 guns, 80
men, and *Le Pont de Lodi*, 16
guns, 102 men, by Capt. Legge, of
the *Cambrian*; *Le Dragon* schooner,
12 guns, 80 men, and *le Dix-
huit de Fructidor* sloop, 10 guns,
75 men, by Capt. Western, of the
Tamer; *La Décidée* privateer, 10
guns, 80 men, and *Le Scipion*, 20
guns, and 100 men, by Capt. Totty,
of the *Alfred*; *La Cérés* privateer,
14 guns, by Capt. Mifford, of the
Matilda; *L'Éclair*, 8 guns, 66
men, by Capt. Champion, of the
Zephyr; a Spanish schooner, 6
guns, 8 swivels, by Lord H. Paulett,
of the *Thalia*; a Spanish merchant
ship of 600 tons, 8 guns, and 45
men, with a valuable cargo from
Monte Video to Oudiz, by Captain
Hood, of the *Zealous*; also, six
privateer sloops, belonging to Gua-
daloupe,

daloupe, and 14 merchant ships and vessels, by the squadron under admiral Harvey.]

11. Mr. Roger O'Connor was apprehended at his apartments in Craven-street, in the Strand, by Sylvester the messenger, and two of the officers belonging to Bow-street. He was brought up to the secretary of state's office, and a warrant made out for sending him back to Dublin; for which place he was conveyed last night by the messenger, accompanied by the police officers.

The commission for trying Messrs. O'Connor, Favey, Binns, Allen and Leary, under a charge of high treason, was opened at Maidstone. The commissioners were Mr. justice Buller, Mr. justice Heath, Mr. justice Lawrence, Mr. serjeant Shepherd, Mr. serjeant Rose, recorder of London; Mr. serjeant Runnington, and Mr. serjeant Palmer. After the commission had been read by Mr. Knapp, the court adjourned.

The court was this day opened at half past eleven; Lord Romney, Mr. justice Buller, and Mr. justice Heath, on the bench. The list of grand jurors being called over, the following gentlemen answered to their names:

Sir Edward Knatchbull, bart. Sir John Gregory Shaw, bart. Sir William Geary, bart. Sir John Dixon Dyke, bart. Charles Townshend, esq. Henry Oxendon, esq. William Hammond, Esq. Nicholas Bromel Toke, esq. Lewis Cage (the younger), esq. Edward Austin, esq. George Grote, esq. Geo. Childern, esq. Francis Motley Austin, esq. Edward Hussey, esq. John Larkin, esq. Thomas Bret, esq. Edward Peach, esq. Henry Woodgate, esq. William Francis Woodgate, esq. James Chadman, esq. George Smith, esq. George Talbot Hatley Foote, esq.

The grand jury being sworn, Mr. justice Buller delivered to them an excellent charge; after which they withdrew for the purpose of considering the bill to be presented to them. A prodigious number of witnesses were sworn in court to give evidence before the grand jury; and the court adjourned. The attorney-general, Mr. Adam, and Mr. Garrow, attended as counsel for the crown. Mr. Plomer is to conduct the defence.

A general court was held at the East-India house, for the purpose of electing six directors, by ballot, to serve four years, in the room of

Hugh Inguis, esq.
Paul Le Mesurier,
Thomas T. Metcalfe, esq.
John Manslip, esq.
Geo. W. Thellusson, esq.
And Sir Francis Baring,

who go out by rotation.

At six o'clock the glasses being finally closed, were delivered to the scrutineers, who at a late hour reported the numbers to be as under-mentioned:

Simon Fraser, esq.	1470
Charles Mills, esq.	1496
Thomas Parry, esq.	1403
Abraham Roberts, esq.	1467
David Scott, esq.	1068
George Tatem, esq.	983
John Huddleston, esq.	740

Next day J. Bosanquet, esq. and Sir Stephen Lushington, bart. were elected chairman and deputy-chairman for the year ensuing; the chairs, with John Roberts, esq. were appointed a secret committee, under the act of 26th George the third.

12. Peter Perchard, esq. was unanimously elected alderman of Candlewick ward, in the room of Thos. Wright, esq. deceased.

Admiralty Office, April 14.
Copy of a Letter from Vice-Admiral

miral Kingsmill, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels on the Coast of Ireland, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Cove of Cork, the 6th inst.

SIR,

I herewith transmit, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, a letter to me from the hon. captain De Courcy, of his majesty's ship *Magnanime*, containing particulars of the capture of two French privateers.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R. KINGSMILL.

Magnanime, Cork Harbour, April 6.

SIR,

I avail myself of the earliest means of acquainting you, that, when the service assigned to me by your order of the 6th of March had been nearly accomplished, chase was given by his majesty's ship under my command to a French privateer brig, which, at the distance of about five miles, was, on the dawn of the 16th of the same month, observed to hawl athwart the fore-foot of the little convoy submitted to my guidance.

The gale being fresh, and favourable to the *Magnanime's* best sailing, it was trusted she would very speedily arrive up with the object of pursuit; but that end was not attained till, at the expiration of twenty-four hours, a space had been run of 256 miles, although the privateer had, in her flight, given a very manifest advantage, by steering in a circuitous manner.

The satisfaction of capturing so fast-sailing a privateer has been much increased by a knowledge, subsequently obtained, of its having been the design of her commander, in a confidence of his vessel's unrigg'd sailing, to hover round the convoy till a favourable moment should occur for attacking

its least protected part. The privateer is named *L'Eugenie*, was captured in lat. 42, and lon. 12, was manned, when chased, with 107 men, and armed with 18 guns, eight of which appear to have been thrown overboard, whilst pressed in the pursuit.

Under similar circumstances of wind and weather, pursuit was again given, by the ship under my command, to a ship which reconnoitred us early on the morning of the 1st of April.

The chase was continued with doubtful effect for some time, when at length, after a pursuit of 180 miles, in 18 hours, she made a signal of surrendering. Her force consisted of 20 guns (but pierced for 22), and 137 men, and, like *L'Eugenie*, appears to be coppered and perfectly new. Her name *L'Audacieux*.

The ease with which she ran round us, within six hours after being taken possession of, manifested how much we were indebted for the capture of her, to her very bad steering. Sixteen of her guns were thrown overboard in the chase.

I have the honour to be, &c.

M DE COURCY.

Vice-Admiral Kingsmill.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of a French schooner privateer, armed with one six-pounder and eight swivels, with 21 men, commanded by *Monf. Francois Dore*, by his majesty's armed brig *Terrier*, *lieut. Lowten*; —also the *Merveilleuse* schooner privateer, *Lefevre*, mounting six guns, (five of which were thrown overboard in the chase) and 39 men, by his majesty's armed vessel the *Wright*, *captain Campbell*, together with the recapture of three brigs, laden with coals, viz. *Spalding*, of *Bolton*; *Ranger*, of *Yarmouth*;

mouth; Elizabeth, of Wells; which had been taken by the French privateer the same morning.

15. This morning at ten, the duke of Portland, the lord chancellor, Mr. Pitt, the attorney and solicitor general, Mr. Wickham, and Mr. White, the solicitor, met at the secretary of state's office, to examine several persons brought up from Manchester, on a charge of treasonable practices, and the witnesses against them. Proofs of a deep and most dangerous conspiracy, to aid the enemy in their attempts at invading this country, are every day becoming more manifest.

Admiralty-Office, April 16.

Copy of a Letter from Sir Henry Trollope, of his Majesty's ship *Russel*, to Mr. Nepean, dated at Spithead, April 14.

SIR,

I beg leave to acquaint you, that on the 14th ult. his majesty's ship *Jason*, in company with the *Russell*, burnt a small French brig, in ballast, bound from Brest to Nantz; and on the 20th ult. his majesty's ships *Russell* and *Jason* captured the *Bon Citoyen*, a French brig privateer, of 12 guns and 65 men, from Granville; had been out 14 days, and taken nothing.

I am, &c.

HENRY TROLLOPE.

Maidstone, April 17. Copies of the indictment found against Mr. O'Connor, and the rest of the prisoners confined in our gaol for high treason, were delivered to them, together with lists of the jury and witnesses. Upwards of 200 persons are summoned on the jury. The number of witnesses on the part of the crown is 101; and the indictment is of an extraordinary length. The following is an abstract of the indictment:—

There are three treasons laid in the indictment, and seven overt acts.

The same overt acts are charged to each species of treason. The first treason is compassing the king's death—the second, adhering to, aiding, and comforting, the king's enemies—the third, compassing, imagining, inventing, devising, and intending to move and stir certain foreigners and strangers (that is to say, the persons exercising the powers of government in France, and the men of France under the government of the said persons) with force to invade this realm.

17. On Easter Monday last, information was given at the excise-office, that a party of smugglers, with three loaded carts, would be in town that day (by way of Croydon), together with one full of small arms, and that they would, no doubt, make a desperate resistance. A party of officers and a company of dragoons were sent, and met them, as described, near Croydon; but only found in company with the carts (besides the drivers) two persons, of the names of Johnson and Tapfell, who were well known in the smuggling trade, the others having returned, supposing the goods to be out of danger. The carts were seized, and the men apprehended and lodged in the New Gaol, in the Borough; where they were accommodated with an apartment, the window of which faced a court-yard that led up to the door of the gaol. About eleven o'clock this morning, a person requested to see the prisoners; who, it appears, had previously put fire-arms through the iron grates of the window where the prisoners were. This person remained in conference for some time; when Johnson requested one of the turnkeys to go to the apartment where

he

slept, to fetch him his sleeve-garters; and while he was gone a visitor asked the other turnkey to let him out. The outer door being opened for that purpose, Unson and his comrade burst suddenly out of the room, and each presented to the turnkey a blunderbuss, and prevented him from shutting the door; he suffered them to escape, supposing, as they had ironed their trousers, he should be able, with assistance, to overtake and secure them; but their plan was too well executed; for a person was waiting two hours before the prison with three very capital ruses to assist their escape; and he was also furnished with arms; these ruses they mounted, and threatened with instant death any person who dared to molest them. They then went off full-speed, to the great astonishment of a number of spectators. The person who held their horses while they mounted, was seized, and underwent an examination at Union-hall, and afterwards was committed to the New Gaol. Mr. Allport, the head-coper, unluckily had left town for Ryegate early in the morning.

19. A court of common council was held at Guildhall, present the lord mayor, nine aldermen, sheriffs, and a number of commoners.

Previous to any other business being entered upon, the lord mayor communicated the nature of the inference he had had with the duke of York, on the subject, in what state the citizen was in, in regard to volunteer corps: that his lordship had convened the aldermen and deputies together, and found only the ward of Cornhill had associated. He then read some resolutions of that ward, and a letter he had just

received from Mr. Dundas, in relation to forming armed associations in the several wards.

The lord mayor also read a resolution from the board of directors of the Phoenix fire-office, offering their men to act as artillery men, to be attached to the volunteer corps of the citizens of London, or in any other manner, as his lordship and the magistrates should think best.

The letter of Mr. Dundas, and the resolution of the directors, were ordered to be entered upon record.

Mr. Samuel Dixon, after paying a very handsome compliment to the latter gentlemen for their patriotic resolution, moved the thanks of the court to them, which was unanimously agreed to, and the lord mayor was desired to communicate the same.

Sir W. Plomer then moved the thanks of the court to the lord mayor, for the elegant entertainment he gave the corporation on Tuesday last, which was unanimously agreed to.

Mr. Stokes introduced a sketch for forming the city into districts, for the inhabitants to be trained to arms, and read several motions to give it effect.

A number of gentlemen, after expressing their earnest desire to give every support in their power to further the desired purpose of arming for the protection of the city, thought it would be most efficacious to leave it to the magistrates to act in such manner as they should be advised.

After a long debate, or rather conversation, Mr. Stokes agreed to withdraw his original propositions; and moved, 'That the lord mayor and aldermen be desired to form the wards of the city into such districts as they shall think proper for training

training the inhabitants to the use of arms.'

Mr. Samuel Dixon seconded the motion.

Alderman Combe said, if there was a *man* in the kingdom that could or would hesitate for a moment in associating for the defence of his country against any foe whatever, he had to thank God he did not know *that man*. The alderman then informed the court, that the lord mayor had requested the aldermen to meet at the Mansion-house to-morrow on the subject.

Mr. Simmonds objected to Mr. Stokes's motion; and moved, by way of amendment, 'That the right hon. the lord mayor be requested to convene his brethren the aldermen, to consider Mr. secretary Dundas's letter,' which was agreed to.

Old Bailey, April 19. Robert Reeves, the stock-broker, who was tried and found guilty, last January sessions, of forging scrip receipts, with intent to defraud a Mr. Ashforth, but whose judgment had been respited on account of a defect in the indictment, was again indicted for an offence precisely similar, with an intent to defraud a Mr. Parry.

The circumstances, as stated by Mr. Garrow, and afterwards proved, were as follow.

The prisoner had acted as Mr. Parry's broker, and had obtained near 10,000*l.* of him, for which he had deposited scrip receipts for the loyalty loan of 7,500*l.* all of which turned out to have been forged. The facts were proved beyond a doubt. An objection was taken on a point of law, and disallowed by the court.

The prisoner called witnesses to his character, which, prior to this

transaction, had been in every respect upright.

Lord Kenyon summed up the evidence; and the jury immediately found the prisoner—*guilty*.

19. A magistrate from Bow street, with a party of officers, went about twelve last night, to a public house in Compton-street, Clerkenwell; and seized, by virtue of warrant from the secretary of state's office, 14 persons, a division of the London corresponding society. They were conveyed in six coaches to Clerkenwell sessions-house, where they underwent an examination and whence three of them made their escape: the others were sent to the New prison, Clerkenwell.

20. The seizure of the division of the London corresponding society, and their papers, at Clerkenwell, led to farther discoveries: a last night, about eleven, a large party of Bow-street officers arrested the head body, called the executive committee, which had long met very secretly, in a large old building in the passage leading out Newcastle-street, Strand, into Coventry-buildings, next door to the back entrance of the Queen of Bethlem's head. In this place the members of the society were last night found sitting, with a table, books, papers, &c. and several desks, as if the secretaries of the different divisions were there to take down the minutes of the resolutions of the executive committee. There was also an elevated seat like a pulpit, and in high sittings, this situation, the members were apprehended.

Old Bailey, April 21. David Wilkinson was indicted for having feloniously and falsely made, forged, and counterfeited a certain bill of exchange for 27*l.* for the purpose of

urporting to have been accepted by Messrs. Favell and Co. and for having uttered and published the same, knowing it to have been forged and counterfeited, with intent to defraud the governor and company of the bank of England. There was another count, alleging it to have been with intent to defraud Messrs. Favell and Co.

Mr. Garrow observed, this was a prosecution instituted by the bank of England for the protection of that paper credit so essential to the existence of this great commercial country. The case appeared to him one of the shortest and most conclusive against the prisoner that he had ever considered. The bill in question, the forgery of which was imputed to the prisoner, was drawn by himself, payable to his own order, on a respectable house, Messrs. Favell, Bousfield, and Co. and purporting to have been accepted by them. It might happen that a forged promissory note, bill of exchange, or other instrument of such nature, might, after passing through various hands, be presented by a person ignorant of the fact of the forgery; but in this case he was afraid it was impossible for the most charitable person to entertain a doubt whether the prisoner could have had the note in question in his possession without the most perfect knowledge of its being forged. There were but three grounds on which a man could have a right to draw a bill upon another; either that he had some transactions in trade with him; or that he had made a deposit of money, which, through the medium of the bill, he sought to withdraw; or that without such deposit he had his permission to draw upon him as an indulgence or accommodation. It would, therefore, be for the prisoner to

show that he had one of these grounds for drawing on the house of Favell and Co.; and it would be incumbent on him to show further, that, having so drawn the bill, it was presented to and accepted by them. It was to be observed, that the prisoner was the sole indorser of the bill, and was the only hand through which it had passed from the first making of it, until it was presented to the bank to be discounted. On the subject of hand-writing, it might, perhaps, be difficult to prove it, where initial letters were only used, unless by some person who actually saw them written: yet he had no doubt he should be able to offer evidence that the acceptance was the hand-writing of the prisoner himself, as well as the body of the bill; but even if he could not prove so far, still if he could prove that any one else had forged the acceptance, and that the prisoner knew the initials of F. B. and Co. importing to be the names of Favell, Bousfield, and Son, were not their writing, he would be guilty of a capital offence, and it would be the bounden duty of the jury to find him so. The prisoner had been a considerable linen-draper, and had credit on the bank for bills accepted by good houses to a considerable amount, and made use of that credit to enable him to discount the bill in question. It was the course of the business of discounting at the bank for every person to deliver in a day before a list of the bills he wished to have discounted. Such a list had been delivered by the prisoner in his own hand-writing, including the bill with the forgery of which he was charged; and this circumstance, in his mind, was conclusive that he uttered it, well knowing it was forged.

William

William Cuel, a clerk in the discount office at the bank, proved, that the bill in question had been discounted for the prisoner in the month of February last. He said he was acquainted with the prisoner's hand-writing, and believed the list of the bills delivered in by the prisoner, among which was this particular bill, to be his hand-writing, as well as the bill itself, and the acceptance. He had never seen the prisoner write, but knew the writing by its being similar to other bills and papers on which he had transacted business at the bank. The witness produced the warrant, made out by himself, and passed to the drawing office, authorising the prisoner to draw for the amount of the bill discounted, which was £351. 18s. In this warrant the bills were enumerated, and the one in question among the rest.

Isaac Wilton, clerk to Smith, Payne and Smith, the prisoner's bankers, said, he believed the bill, indorsement, and acceptance, to be the hand-writing of the prisoner.

Mr. William Bousfield said, he was not at all acquainted with the prisoner at the bar; knew nothing of the bill; never had any communication with the prisoner, nor saw him. The acceptance was not the hand-writing of himself, or either of his partners; nor was any person authorised by either of them to accept bills.

Mr. Bousfield, jun. deposed to the same effect.

Mr. Jones, their clerk, also said, the acceptance was not the writing of any in the firm.

Mr. Favell, the other partner, was, from illness, unable to attend in court. Mr. Pearson, his apothecary, stated, that his removal from his house would be attended with considerable danger.

Mr. serjeant Shepherd contended, that, in a case of so much importance to the prisoner, no evidence ought to be admitted to prove the acceptance not the hand-writing of Mr. Favell, but the evidence of Mr. Favell himself.

Lord Kenyon said, it was true, the prisoner had an important stake, and it was therefore the duty of the court to be strict with regard to the evidence against him; but the rule of law, on which to determine, was the same in criminal as civil causes. The law did not require impossibilities. It was of the utmost importance that the community at large should be convinced justice was impartially administered, and therefore every objection raised by the counsel in favour of prisoners ought to be duly weighed; but in this instance he had no doubt. Here was a person prevented from attending by the visitation of God; and the question was, Whether evidence ought to be received of his hand-writing?—He was clearly of opinion it ought.

The prisoner was now called upon for his defence: He observed, that, painful as his situation was, standing at the bar of a court of justice, on a charge for a capital offence, and with a wife and five children in dreadful suspense as to his fate, yet it admitted of considerable alleviation from the reflection of his own innocence. It was a satisfaction to him to know he was before a jury of tradesmen, whose knowledge of business would enable them to form a just idea of his grounds of defence. They must, from their own experience in commercial concerns, be aware that the business of this country depended on that credit and confidence which existed between man and man in the various transactions of commercial

commercial dealing, and that it was by a degree of confidence almost unlimited, this nation was supported. To this confidence he was indebted for his situation. He now entered into a very long history of his partnership with a Mr. Adamson, and subsequent dissolution of their partnership. He stated, that he continued his wishes to serve Mr. Adamson, attended to his business in town when he was at Manchester, and performed various good offices for him. That Adamson being embarrassed for cash, was desirous of having the advantage of his (the prisoner's) privilege of discounting at the bank, it being customary for the bank to discount for each person only to a certain extent. To enable him to do this, he had requested the prisoner to draw bills upon his (Adamson's) customers, in order that Adamson's name might not appear, and that by this means he might have the advantage of a double discount account, one in the prisoner's name, and one in his own. To this he assented, and transactions in such form were carried on to a very large amount. There was nothing fraudulent in it. The jury knew that was the practice of merchants of the first respectability, and that in fact many would be unable to carry on business without having recourse to it. It was serving another without any other hazard than that of the failure of the parties. He was perfectly satisfied of the solvency of Adamson, and nothing ever occurred to make him apprehend any danger. He was always assisted with the names of the parties he drew upon by Adamson, and never had any communication with them himself. Adamson always got them accepted, and then returned them to him to get them

discounted at the bank. He said he should prove that all the discounts were paid over to Adamson. That, with respect to the identical bill on which he was indicted, it was in the hands of Adamson before it was indorsed, and that when he discounted it, he gave the amount of it to Adamson. This he trusted would prove, that, when he presented the bill, he did not know it was forged. He then alluded to his conduct when Adamson was apprehended. So far from his having any fears of being implicated in a charge of forgery, he was only alarmed at the idea of his name being upon so many outstanding bills. He did not abscond, but went to his attorney, and to Adamson's own house, endeavouring to get what he could to indemnify himself. What inference was to be drawn from this, but that he was innocent? He said, upon receiving a letter from Mr. Winter, the solicitor to the bank, he immediately attended him, and was ready to give every explanation. Having made these and many other remarks, he observed, that his case had much engaged the attention of the commercial world, and that many unfavourable accounts of his conduct had been inserted in public prints. He conjured the jury to discharge their minds from any prejudice which they might have adopted in consequence of such misrepresentations, to consider impartially and candidly the nature of the transaction, and that he had voluntarily come forward to meet the charge. He rested his case in their hands, with the firmest reliance that, from a full review of his conduct, they would not hesitate in declaring his innocence of the forgery.

Several witnesses were called, who went the extent of proving that

that notes had been given to Wilkinson for debts due to Adamson; but their testimony by no means came up to the defence.

The rev. Rowland Hill was called to the prisoner's character. He said he had known him many years, that he always considered him as a man of undisguised honesty; that his conduct as a father and a husband was affectionate and exemplary. He could not have believed a man, who always appeared so innocent and upright, capable of committing the offence imputed to him.

Lord Kenyon, after observing in general terms upon the importance of the question to the prisoner and the public, proceeded to sum up the evidence, which he conceived left no doubt as to the prisoner's guilt. He had given all the attention he was capable of both to the prisoner's defence and the evidence in support of it, but could not see how either affected the main charge, which was, uttering the bill knowing it to have been forged. His lordship wished he could have drawn any inferences from the defence favourable to the prisoner. If it furnished the jury with any, he trusted they would run before him in giving the prisoner the benefit of them.

After his lordship had delivered his charge, the prisoner wished to address the jury. He was informed such an indulgence was unusual, nevertheless it should be granted to him, as the court desired nothing so much as his having every opportunity of explaining his conduct to the jury.

The prisoner then entered into a further explanation of his transactions with Adamson. He said he expected Adamson's books would have been produced, which would

have explained every thing for the last nine months.

The jury retired for 40 minutes and, when they returned into court pronounced the prisoner—*guilty*.

Mr. Wilkinson is a respectable good-looking man about forty. His deportment, during the whole of his trial, was such as manifested the utmost fortitude. The questions put by him to the witnesses were judicious. During the interval when the jury were consulting, he expressed no anxiety. He heard the verdict with firmness and retired from the bar with apparent composure.

Joseph Adamson was indicted for falsely and feloniously making and forging a certain bill of exchange, purporting to be drawn by Thomas Stevens, of Manchester upon Messrs. Bowles and Beechcroft.

Mr. Garrow opened this prosecution. He said all the signatures to the bill, and the several indorsements, were forged, except that of the prisoner. He recommended the jury to divest themselves of any prejudice against the prisoner, or account of what had occurred on the last trial. If there was any difference in the guilt of either of the prisoners, it was in favour of the one at the bar. The bill in question was drawn on an engraved plate. It would be proved that the prisoner had procured this plate to be engraved for Stevens; but instead of transmitting all the copies to him, he had unfortunately kept back some, to be employed for his own purposes. It was one of these copies he had filled up and discounted at the bank.

The evidence of Mr. Cuel, and the parties whose names appeared upon the bill, satisfactorily proved the guilt of the prisoner.

Mr

Mr. Kaye, the solicitor to the bank, proved the confession of the prisoner to the fact of this and other forgeries. The confession was not extorted by threats or promises, but was voluntary on the part of the prisoner.

The prisoner said, he had not intended to have troubled the court with any defence. He wished to have relied wholly on the merciful administration of justice, which he knew would be applied to his case; but having learnt that Wilkinson had endeavoured to thrust the whole of the guilt of the transactions on him, he thought it his duty to God and his country, to state that he knew nothing of the bills being forged till they were presented to him by Wilkinson. It was by his persuasion he had taken the part for which he was now called on to answer; and if he had erred, he had erred through ignorance.

Mr. judge Buller summed up the evidence. He observed, that, from what had occurred on the former trial, he had every reason to believe the defence of the prisoner at the bar was well-founded, and that he was to a certain degree the instrument of Wilkinson; but this consideration ought not to weigh a feather in the minds of the jury, as the charge had been clearly proved. It might, however, be of importance to the prisoner, in an application to the crown for a remission of punishment.

The jury immediately pronounced the prisoner—*guilty*.

Adamson's conduct on the trial was the reverse of Wilkinson's. He appeared extremely ill and dejected.

23. This being St. George's day, the society of antiquaries met at their apartments in Somerset-place, in pursuance of their statutes and charter of incorporation, to elect a

president, council, and officers of the society, for the year ensuing; whereupon George earl of Leicester, Thomas Astle, esq. John Brand, A. M. Owen Salusbury Brereton, esq. sir H. C. Englefield, bart. rev. Dr. Hamilton, Craven Ord, esq. John lord bishop of Salisbury, John Topham, esq. Jos. Windham, esq. and Thomas Wm. Wrighte, A. M. 11 of the old council, were re-chosen of the new council; and Francis Annesley, esq. Sir George Baker, bart. Reginald Pole Carew, esq. hon. Rob. Fulk Greville, fir Arch. Macdonald, knt. chief baron of the exchequer, Francis duke of Leeds, Samuel Lysons, esq. Chas. Townshend, esq. John Willett Willett, esq. and Brownlow lord bishop of Winchester, ten of the other members of the society, were chosen of the new council; and they were severally declared to be the council of the society for the year ensuing. And, on a return made of the officers of the society, it appeared that George earl of Leicester was elected president; John Topham, esq. treasurer; Samuel Lysons, esq. director; Thomas William Wrighte, A. M. secretary; and John Brand, A. M. secretary for next year.

The loan was taken this day by Messrs. Curtis, Boyd, Solomons, Goldsmid, and Ward. The terms are the most advantageous that have ever been obtained by the public. They are as follow:

150l.—3 per cent. con-	
fol.	at 48 $\frac{3}{4}$ £.72 11 3
50l.—Reduced 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	23 15 0
Long ann. 4s. 11d. at	
13 $\frac{1}{8}$ years' purchase	3 4 6 $\frac{1}{4}$
	<hr/>
	99 10 9 $\frac{1}{4}$

The bonus is only to be found in the discount on prompt payment. The above very beneficial terms, Mr. Pitt stated, were obtained from
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the benefit which is likely to result to the stockholder from the measure, now in its progress through parliament, of the sale of the land-tax.

24. The gazette contains a letter from admiral sir Hyde Parker, dated March 12, Cape Nicola Mole, giving an account of about a dozen small French ships of war, from one to sixteen guns, recently captured on that station.

25. Eight officers of the 15th dragoons appeared at court on this day, with the gold chains and medallions presented to them by the emperor, in gratitude for having rescued him from the French, in a skirmish in Flanders, by their bravery.

25. About twelve at noon, one of the Battle powder-mills, belonging to Mr. Harvey, and a drying-house and store-room nearly adjoining, were, by some unknown accidental communication of fire, blown up, with two tremendous explosions, and totally destroyed. Three men employed in the mill were forced into the air with the works, and one of them, an elderly man, rent to atoms; different parts of his limbs having been picked up at considerable distances from each other: the other two fell, sadly lacerated, into an adjacent piece of water, out of which they were both taken alive, but in no situation to give the least account of the accident. One of the unfortunate sufferers complained first of extreme heat, drank a cordial which was offered him with great avidity, then said he was excessive cold, and shortly after expired. The other, we are informed, survived nearly two hours, during which he at several intervals faintly exclaimed 'tis not all over yet;' but said nothing more: they both died with-

out agony. Seven separate buildings were completely destroyed, though only two reports were clearly distinguishable. The quantity of powder which exploded exceeded 15 tons weight; and the damage is estimated at upwards of 5000l. Mr. Harvey's house, situated about 10 yards from the nearest building blown up, is so shaken and disjointed, that it must be entirely taken down: a heavy sandstone from the mill was carried several yards over the roof of the above dwelling, and a variety of pieces of timber over a large wood to the distance of nearly half a mile. The vertebrae of the back and neck of the old man, who was in the mill when the accident happened, were taken from the branches of a lofty tree; and other parts of his mangled body were collected at incredible distances from the spot where it was precipitated. The trees near the spot were totally stripped of their infant foliage and blossoms; and a horrid scene of devastation presented itself. A number of workmen are at present employed in clearing the ruins, in order to erect new buildings, which we understand are to be at secure distances from each other, and in other respects so contrived as to be rendered less liable to communicate fire from one to the other, in case of an accident in either.

26. A special court of aldermen was held; there were present the lord mayor, fifteen aldermen, recorder, and two sheriffs. The committee appointed on Tuesday last, to consider the best means of carrying the resolutions then agreed into effect, presented a report, recommending it to each alderman to repair to his ward, and call the inhabitants together for the purpose of forming associations for learning the

the use of arms, or to enrol themselves as extra-constables, to act upon an emergency, as the case may require. A copy of the report, and of a printed plan, was ordered to be sent to each alderman and his deputy, who were requested to hold their first meeting on Tuesday next; the aldermen were also desired to consult with their common council, on the best means of making the returns of persons between 15 and 60, agreeable to the act for the defence of the kingdom, &c.

From the London Gazette, April 28.

Admiralty Office, April 28.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board his Majesty's Ship Royal George, at Sea, the 22d inst.

SIR,

I have the satisfaction to acquaint you, for their lordships' information, that l'Hercule, of 74 guns, was taken by his majesty's ship Mars last night.

The inclosed copy of a letter from lieutenant Butterfield will best shew to their lordships the spirit and judgment manifested upon this occasion. No praise of mine can add one ray of brilliancy to the distinguished valour of capt. Alexr. Hood, who carried his ship nobly into battle, and who died of the wounds he received in supporting the just cause of his country. It is impossible for me not to sincerely lament his loss, as he was an honour to the service, and universally beloved; he has fallen gloriously, as well as all those who are so handsomely spoken of by lieutenant Butterfield. I have appointed him to the command of l'Hercule, to carry her into port; and I have given a temporary appointment to

captain James George Shirley to command the Mars, and lieutenant George White, first of the Royal George, to command the Megæra. Lieutenant Henry Combe, the second, will deliver to you this dispatch.

I have the honour to be, sir,

your most obedient

humble servant,

BRIDPORT.

Mars, at Sea, April 22.

My Lord,

I beg leave to acquaint your lordship, that the ship chased by his majesty's ship Mars yesterday, per signal, endeavoured to escape through the Passage du Raz: but the tide proving contrary, and the wind easterly, obliged her to anchor at the mouth of that passage; which afforded captain Hood the opportunity of attacking her, by laying her so close alongside as to unhinge some of the lower-deck ports, continuing a very bloody action for an hour and a half, when she surrendered.

I lament being under the necessity of informing your lordship, that his majesty has, on this occasion, lost that truly brave man, captain Hood, who was wounded in the thigh late in the conflict, and expired just as the enemy's ship had struck her colours. This ship proves to be l'Hercule, of 74 guns, and 700 men, her first time at sea, from L'Orient, to join the Breſt fleet.

I cannot sufficiently commend the bravery and good conduct of the surviving officers and men, who merit my warmest thanks: I must particularly recommend to your lordship's notice Mr. Southey, the signal midshipman.

Lieutenants Argles and Ford are the only officers wounded. Capt. Hood, and captain White of the

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marines,

marines, are killed. Lieut. Argles, though badly wounded, never quit-
ted the deck.

From a number of the people being with lieutenant Bowker in charge of the prize, I cannot at present inform your lordship of the exact number of killed and wounded; but from the best information circumstances afford, I think about 30 killed and as many wounded, most of them dangerously.

I have the honour to be,
my lord,
your lordship's most obedient
humble servant,

W. BUTTERFIELD.

Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. &c.

It appears also, by a letter from admiral lord Bridport of the 21st inst. that his majesty's ship *Jason* had captured on the preceding day a new gun brig, named *l'Arrogante*, carrying 6 long twenty-four-pounders and 92 men.

28. In the court of king's bench, Mr. Williams, who was convicted on the 24th of June, 1797, of a libel on the Christian religion, by publishing Paine's 'Age of Reason,' was brought up in custody of the keeper of Newgate to receive judgment.

Mr. justice Ashurst pointed out the enormity of his offence, the minute parts of which he would forbear to particularise. Although the Almighty did not require the aid of human tribunals to vindicate his precepts, it was nevertheless fit to show our abhorrence of such wicked doctrines, which were not only an offence against God, but against law and government, from their direct tendency to dissolve all the bonds and obligations of civil society. It was upon this ground the Christian religion constituted part of the law of the land. But if the name of our Re-

deemer was suffered to be traduced, and his holy religion treated with contempt, the solemnity of an oath, on which the due administration of justice depended, would be destroyed, and the law be stripped of one of its principal sanctions, the dread of future punishment. This crime was further aggravated by the motive in which it was conceived; there could be no temptation, no sudden impulse of passion to which man was so often exposed by the frailty of his nature,—it could have only proceeded from a cool and malignant spirit. Mr. justice Ashurst then proceeded to observe upon the affidavit made by the defendant, in mitigation of his punishment, in which it was stated that this pamphlet had been published in 1794 by others, of whom no notice had been taken. This, in his mind, he said, led to a contrary inference; impunity was an encouragement to crimes, and if there were others wicked enough to commit so atrocious an offence, this circumstance showed the necessity for arresting its progress, and made it a more incumbent duty to repress it by some salutary example. The defendant had also stated, that he was not conscious of committing an offence by the publication. To this he must reply, that a child who had only common attention paid to his education, could not be ignorant of its impious and wicked intent: but ignorance was no sort of excuse: every person in the situation of the defendant ought to know that every thing which he sent out into the world, was consistent with religion, law, decency, and morality. Under all these circumstances then, if the court did not pass so severe a sentence as the enormity of the offence required, it would be in consequence of Mr.

Erskine's

Erskine's interference in his behalf.

Mr. justice Ashhurst then pronounced the judgment of the court, which was, that the defendant be imprisoned in the house of correction for one year, there to be kept to hard labour, and that, at the expiration thereof, he shall give security to the amount of 1000*l.* for his good behaviour the rest of his life.

The defendant asked if he might be accommodated with a bed in his confinement?

Lord Kenyon said, that his sentence was light, very light indeed, considering the nature of his offence, which was horrible to Christian ears. He had known a case of less enormity, where the defendant was sentenced to three years' imprisonment.

Maidstone, April 30. The state prisoners were this morning escorted by a party of the Kent volunteers and sheriff's officers, from our gaol to the court-house. About two o'clock lord Romney, Mr. justice Buller, Mr. justice Heath, Mr. justice Laurence, and serjeant Shepherd, took their seats on the bench, and the prisoners were placed at the bar. The indictment being then read, Mr. Plomer, on the part of Mr. O'Conner and Mr. Binns, insisted the prisoners ought neither of them to answer the indictment, because the copy, required to be delivered to them by act of parliament, differed in several instances from the original one. He pointed where, in the copy, the words 'armed force' were used, instead of 'armed men,' and the word '*said*,' was omitted in the copy. He observed, that his reason for taking the objection was, because the prisoners were really not prepared to enter upon their defence, and that, if the objection

was over-ruled, he should apply to the court to grant farther time. He would show the affidavits of the prisoners to the attorney-general, and trusted to his candor for postponing the trials after he had seen them. A conversation ensued between the attorney-general, Mr. Plomer, and Mr. Dallas, which ended in an agreement to postpone the trials, provided the prisoners waved all objections to form in the copies of the indictment. The court was accordingly adjourned till Monday, the 21st of May, at seven in the morning.

MAY.

Admiralty Office, May 1.

Extract of a Letter from the Right Hon. Admiral Lord Bridport, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board his Majesty's Ship the Royal George, at Sea, the 26th of April.

Herewith you will receive, for their lordships' information, a copy of a list, transmitted to me by capt. Stirling, of the killed, wounded, and missing of the Mars, on the 21st instant.

List of killed and wounded, &c. on board his majesty's ship Mars, in action with the French national ship L'Hercule, the 21st of April, 1798.

Alexander Hood, captain, killed.

James Blythe, second midshipman, killed.

Seamen, 11 killed, 3 died of their wounds.

George Argles, third lieutenant, wounded.

George Arnauld Ford, fifth lieutenant, wounded.

Thomas Southey, midshipman, wounded.

Seamen, 36 wounded, 3 missing.

Boys, 2 wounded.

MARINES.

Joseph White, captain, killed.

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One corporal killed.

Privates, 2 killed, 2 died of their wounds.

Serjeants, 2 wounded.

One drummer wounded.

Privates, 16 wounded, 5 missing.

Total—17 killed, 5 died of their wounds, 60 wounded, and 8 missing—in all 90.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of a French lugger privateer *Jupiter*, mounting 8 carriage guns, and manned with 36 men, by his majesty's cutter *Cruiser*, lieutenant Wollaston.

Admiralty-Office, May 5.

The gazette contains an account of the capture of the Batavian republican brig *Le Courier*, pierced for 12, and mounting 6 four-pounders, and a number of swivels, and manned with 30 men, by his majesty's sloop *Scorpion*, captain John Tremayne Rodd: she had taken the *Lark* brig, of Whitby, coal-laden, which the *Scorpion* retook;—also, *La Sans-souci* French privateer lugger, mounting 1 twelve-pounder carronade, and 2 brass fours, and 27 men, by his majesty's cutter *Telemachus*, lieutenant Newton.

May 7. This morning, about four o'clock, a most dreadful fire broke out at the house of a Mr. Bull, a tallow-chandler, in Gerard-street, Soho. A servant-maid had sat up for her master, a major in the army, who lodged on the first floor; but, grown impatient for his return, she retired to bed in the garret, in the next room to that where Mrs. Bull and three children slept, leaving, it is supposed, the candle and fire burning in the kitchen. In less than two hours after, the mistress was alarmed by a loud knocking at the hall-door, and supposing that the major was returned, called to the maid to rise and let her master in: but she was soon undeceiv-

ed by the cries of "fire! fire!" which succeeded, and instantly hurried down stairs with her children, having desired the maid to follow her. The unfortunate woman, however, anxious, perhaps, to save some of her little property, neglected to obey, and the fury of the flames, increased by the current of air, rushing in through the hall as Mrs. Bull retired, cut off her retreat. The upper part of the house was so secured, she could not get out upon the roof, and the fire gaining rapidly upon her, she had no resource but to throw herself out of a window in the two pair front. A watchman, standing below, in an effort to save her fall, caught her by the leg; but this did not prevent her body from coming to the ground with such violence that she was carried speechless to the Middlesex hospital, where she has since died. Notwithstanding every exertion to arrest the progress of the fire, it soon communicated to the house adjoining it on the right side: but all the inhabitants were alarmed in sufficient time to make their escape; one of these, Mr. Crozian, an engraver, who lodged in the second floor, unfortunately returned with a hope to save three copper-plates on which he set much value. He was followed by a Mr. Hyde, with whom he had spent the night until a late hour, to the very door of the apartment, but the heat was so great Mr. H. was obliged to retire, and Mr. C. who ventured in was suffocated, and every means used by the faculty to restore him proved ineffectual. Mrs. Bull's house was entirely consumed, and all the property it contained destroyed; but it was fortunately insured: the other house was not entirely consumed, and a good deal of the property was saved.

IRISH PARLIAMENT.

May 7. In the house of lords on Monday, on calling over the names of the lords who made default on the call of the house on Tuesday last, when the clerk came to the name of the lord bishop of Derry,

Lord Chancellor said, he could not help calling their lordships' attention to the very peculiar circumstances in which the lord bishop of Derry stood. He had taken the trouble, he said, to look into the journals of the house, and he found that it was now upwards of twenty-four years since his lordship (the bishop) had attended his duty in that house.—For the greater part of those twenty-four years he had been absent, without intermission, from the country, and had uniformly for that period neglected his duty in parliament. This was a case which called for some attention from the house. There was, he observed, a law of very old standing in Ireland, which made the temporalities of a bishop liable to sequestration for continued absence from duty; and he thought when a bishop possessed so ample an income as his lordship of Derry, it was right, after so long a dereliction of his duty, that the emoluments of his see should be made to contribute in some degree to the wants of this poor country. At present he did not mean to trouble their lordships with any specific proposition on this subject; but he gave notice, that when it should come to be considered by the house what should be done with the noble lords who had made default, he should hope that those temporal lords who were absent in England would be excused; but that if any attempt were made to apologise for his lordship of Derry on that ground, he would oppose it.

Lord Glentworth presented a pe-

tition of the earl of Kingston, praying, that a copy of the indictment which had been sent up against his lordship, for the alleged murder of Gerald Fitzgerald, esq. and also the writs of certiorari, and the returns thereon, should be given to his lordship, and also that counsel might be assigned him, to enable him to prepare for his defence.—The petition was received, and an order made accordingly. He also moved, that John P. Curran, and Wm. Saurin, esqrs. might be assigned his lordship as counsel, which was accordingly ordered.

Lord Chancellor observed, that he had already given verbal directions, that a copy of the order, appointing May the 18th for his lordship's trial, should be furnished to him. He believed it would be right that an order of the house should be made for that purpose.

Admiralty Office, May 8.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. Halsted, of his Majesty's Ship *Phoenix*, to Mr. Nepean, dated Plymouth Sound, the 6th instant.

SIR,

Be pleased to inform their lordships, that his majesty's ship under my command arrived here this day, in company with *Le Brave* French privateer, pierced for 22 guns, and carrying 18, which are eighteens and twelves, with 160 men. She was captured in the night of the 24th ult. in latitude 49 deg. N. longitude 16 deg. W. after some resistance, by which she had a few men killed, and 14 wounded. The *Phoenix* received some trifling damage in her sails and rigging, but no person hurt.—She is a very fine ship, of 600 tons, is coppered, and sails exceedingly fast. It is an additional pleasure to me to say there were about fifty English prisoners on board her at

the time, none of whom received any injury from our shot. On the 25th we retook the *Thetis*, a valuable American ship, from Charleston to London, which this privateer captured a few days before.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of *Le Hardi* schooner, of 8 guns and 60 men; and *Le Hazard* schooner, of 2 guns and 27 men, by his majesty's ship *Concorde*, captain Barton; also, *La Mutine* French privateer schooner, of 8 guns, and 61 men, by his majesty's ship *Lapwing*, captain Thomas Harvey; — also, *Le Parfait* French privateer schooner, of 10 guns, and 60 men, by his majesty's ship *Roebuck*, captain Burrowes.

May 9. At the Court at St. James's; present, the king's most excellent majesty in council. — This day, his majesty in council having ordered the council-book to be laid before him, the name of the hon. Charles James Fox was erased from the list of privy counsellors.

Admiralty Office, May 12.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Hotham, of his Majesty's Ship *Adamant*, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated at anchor off the Islands of St. Marcou, the 8th of May, 1798.

SIR,

I have the satisfaction of inclosing, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, a letter I yesterday received from lieutenant Price, commanding officer on the islands of St. Marcou, in which it will be found, that, by his firm and steady resistance against a very considerable force, those islands have been saved falling into the hands of the enemy.

The calm weather had for some days prevented his majesty's ships under my orders from checking the progress which the flotilla from La

Hogue might attempt to make; and, judging from the information I received from lieutenant Price on the morning of the 6th, that it was on its way to the islands, I necessarily approached them as near as the state of the weather would permit me to do. On the same afternoon, however, I was obliged to anchor; but taking advantage of a light breeze in the evening, I again weighed and stood in. At ten o'clock that night, it again falling quite calm, and fearing the flood-tide would carry us too far to the eastward, the ship once more anchored, the islands bearing W. by S. six miles.

A little before the dawn of day, the enemy commenced the attack, and the boats were soon afterwards seen placed, and keeping up a constant fire. A light breeze springing up at that time from the N. N. W. with an ebb-tide, the signal was made to weigh, and captains Talbot of the *Eurydice*, and Hagget of the *Orestes*, were directed by me to stand in as fast as possible, and attack the enemy in the manner they should judge most effectual towards destroying them, on arriving up. While going down, however, it was perceived the enemy was making his retreat in a very hasty and confused manner; and I am not altogether without hope, that the near approach of his majesty's ships in some measure confirmed the enemy in his inclination of abandoning an enterprise, which, from the very able conduct and well-directed fire of lieutenant Price, he would at all events have been ultimately obliged to do. It again falling calm, and the ships not having steerage-way, rendered pursuit on our side impossible, and enabled them to make their retreat to La Hogue.

It would be great injustice in not joining with him in his very well bestowed commendation on the conduct of the several officers and men under his command.

It may not be deemed improper to mention, that I this morning saw some pieces of paper taken from the vessel which has been towed in, and that amongst them there is a sort of return of the crew, by which it appears that it consisted of 144 men; the total force, therefore, may have been very considerable, and, there is every reason to believe, has suffered great loss.

I have the honour to be, &c.

W. HOTHAM.

Badger, Isles St. Marcou, May 7.
SIR,

I beg leave to represent to you, that, in consequence of the information I received yesterday, and the movements of the enemy at La Hogue, I conjectured they would attack us in the night, about high water; I therefore dispatched a guard-boat, belonging to the Sandfly, with Mr. Moore, midshipman of the Eurydice, in her, to watch the motions of the enemy. About twelve o'clock he got amongst them, and made the signal of their being in motion, and about the same time we clearly heard the enemy talk, but it was so dark we could not discover them.

At day-break, I observed their line drawn a-breast of the S. W. face of the western redoubt, and having all my guns I could bring to bear well pointed, I began a steady well-directed fire on them, until the flat boats came within musquet-shot, when I observed six or seven of them go down, whilst the others took out the living part of the crews; one I am towing into the islands, and the remainder, consisting of forty-three, are re-

turning into La Hogue. I am clear, from the crowded state of their decks, that they must have received great damage and slaughter; but I am sorry to add, we had one marine killed, and 3 severely wounded, and one seaman wounded.

Lieutenant Bourne took every method in his power to assist me; but from the situation of the attack, the east island was deprived for some time of doing much; but the shells from the 68 pounders, over the length of the west island, latterly did them great damage, by flanking the N. W. side of the west island.

I beg leave to represent likewise to you, that lieutenants Maughan and Ensor, with the marines, sergeant Henderson and the party of artillery, and the seamen under my command, behaved as well as officers and men could do.

I am, sir, your humble servant,

CHA. P. PRICE.

Capt. Hotham, senior officer, &c.

Lieutenant Price, in a letter to Mr. Nepean, dated the 9th, repeats the intelligence contained in the above, and concludes thus:

"I am sorry to announce the death of Thomas Hall, private marine, killed; Richard Dunn and Peter Williamson, marines, wounded, and Thomas Banks, seaman, wounded. But considering our receiving the fire of near eighty heavy bow-guns, from 36 to 18 pounders, for upwards of two hours, I look upon our damage as not great. We had four guns dismounted, but I got them fit for service before night. Inclosed I send you lieutenant Bourne's letter to me, the morning after the action.

I am, &c. CHA. P. PRICE.

Sandfly, East Island, St. Marcou
7th May, 1798.

SIR,

I have the pleasure to inform you,

you, that in the affair of this morning, there were no killed or wounded in this island. I cannot speak in terms sufficiently strong, of the firm and manly conduct displayed on this occasion by the officers and men under my command; and I feel particularly indebted to Lieut. Lawrence, of the marines, ensign Carter, of the invalids, Messrs. Trotter and Moor, mates of the *Adamant* and *Eurydice*, and Mr. John Mather, commissary of ordnance stores, for their assistance, and ready execution of my orders during the action.

I have the honour to be, &c.

RICH. BOURNE.

Lieut. Price, &c. &c.

Senior officer at the islands of St. Marcou.

Admiralty-Office, May 12.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. Parkenham, of his Majesty's Ship *Resistance*, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated off Fort Victoria, Amboyna, October 21, 1797.

SIR,

I have the honour to inform you, that the islands of Amboyna and Banda are in a very respectable state of defence, and the seamen and troops in very good health and spirits, and from the enemy's cruises being all captured or destroyed, as per margin, are at present very well supplied.

Prizes taken by his majesty's ship *Resistance*.

Young Frank sloop, 10 guns and 8 swivels, cut out from Ternate; *Amo* sloop, loaded with rice, coming into Ternate; Young *Laufin* sloop, 10 guns and 8 swivels; *Lim-Sketch*, 6 guns, off Celebes, and loaded with rice; a large corra corra, 6 ranfakers, carrying a pound ball; a paddawackan, with 6 swivels; Walker sloop, 10 guns and

8 swivels, at Gonontalo, island of Celebes, by the boats of the *Resistance*; *Resource*, coppered brig, 6 guns, at Copang island of St. Timor; a large paddawackan.

13. This day, about one o'clock, sir Sydney Smith arrived at the Admiralty, who has been so long a prisoner in the Temple at Paris, under the most rigorous confinement; the executive directory having made him a particular object of their revenge, refusing every overture to release him, unless 4000 seamen were given in exchange. Finding that all hopes of an honourable exchange were vanished, from the rancour which the directory constantly manifested towards the above officer, a plan was formed in this country to effect his escape; and a foreigner of some distinction undertook to make the attempt. He went to Paris; and, having procured some blank warrants used in the office of the minister of police for the delivery of prisoners, he obtained a forged signature of the minister, directed to the gaoler of the Temple, extremely well executed, to deliver up to the bearers of it, who were national guards, the persons of sir Sydney Smith and Mr. Wright, that they might be conveyed to another prison. Four persons, on whom confidence could be placed, were accordingly employed to represent national guards; in which habit they went to the gaoler of the Temple with the forged orders for the delivery of the prisoners, who were accordingly delivered up, and put into a hackney-coach. So well was the escape conducted, that, though this event happened on the evening of April 24, it was not even known to the directory till May 4; at which time sir Sydney was out of the limits of the republic. On the 5th

he arrived at Portsmouth, having been picked up off Havre by the *Argo* frigate, which, being on a cruise off Havre, fell in with an open boat at sea, with a handkerchief hoisted on a boat-hook. She immediately bore down, and picked her up, when, to the great satisfaction of all on board, it was found to contain sir Sydney Smith and Mr. Wright. The *Argo* was immediately detached from captain Wolley's Squadron, to land sir Sydney at Portsmouth: and on his arrival being known, a great number of persons assembled at the inn to welcome his return, and the populace testified their joy, by loud, hearty, and repeated huzzas. After taking some refreshment, he immediately set off for London. The horses were taken from his chaise by the populace, who drew him without the gates of the town. Sir Sydney was taken prisoner on the 28th of April, 1796.

Maidstone, May 21.

This morning, at seven, the judges met, pursuant to adjournment, to proceed to the trial of the prisoners indicted for high treason. The persons summoned as jurors were called. The crown challenged 25, and the prisoners the full number allowed by law. Three hours and a half elapsed before the jury were chosen; and a considerable part of this time was taken up in challenging persons *with cause*, and producing evidence to show that they had used expressions of warmth against the prisoners. Some of these challenges were admitted, and others refused. Mr. Abbott opened the case on the part of the crown; and the attorney-general detailed the whole of the circum-

stances, stating the tenor of the paper purporting to be an address to the directory of France, together with several letters of a treasonable tendency. He entered into a minute history of the conduct of the prisoners from Feb. 27 till the time of their apprehension, in order to show their design was to get to France. On the next day, the court being met, Mr. Plomer, as leading counsel for Mr. O'Connor and O'Coigley, opened the defence in an able speech, which took up four hours and a half in the delivery.—The examination of the witnesses being ended, and Mr. justice Buller having delivered his charge; the jury, after a consultation of forty minutes, returned the following verdict: James O'Coigley, guilty; Arthur O'Connor, not guilty; John Binns, not guilty; John Allen, not guilty; Jeremiah Leary, not guilty. After the jury had given in their verdict, Mr. justice Buller passed sentence of death on O'Coigley in the usual manner in cases of high treason.

Admiralty Office, May 22.

Captain Winthrop, of his majesty's ship *Circe*, arrived here this day with a dispatch from captain Home-Riggs Popham, of his majesty's ship *Expedition*, to Evan Nepean, esq. secretary of the admiralty, of which the following is a copy:

Expedition, Ostend Roads, May 20.

SIR,

I beg you will do me the honour to inform my lords commissioners of the admiralty that, in pursuance of their orders of the 8th instant, I proceeded to sea the 14th with the ships and vessels named in the margin*, having on board the troops under

* To anchor to the eastward: *Hecla* bomb, J. Oughton; *Harpy*, H. Bazeley; *Ariadne*, J. Bradby; *Expedition*, H. Popham; *Minerva*, J. M'Kellar; *Savage*, N. Thompson; *Blazer*,

under the command of major-gen. Coote, for the purpose of blowing up the basin-gates and sluices of the Bruges canal, and destroying the internal navigation between Holland, Flanders, and France. On the 18th P. M. I spoke the Fairy, when captain Horton told me he had taken a cutter from Flushing to Ostend; and he understood from the people on board, that the transport schuyts sitting at Flushing were to go round immediately by the canals to Dunkirk and Ostend; and although it was impossible that any information could give additional spirit to the troops forming this enterprise, or increase the energy and exertions of the officers and seamen under my command, yet it convinced major-general Coote and myself that it was of the greatest importance not to lose any time, but to attempt, even under an increased degree of risk, an object of such magnitude as the one in question; and, as the weather appeared more favourable than it had been, I made the signal for capt. Bazeley, in the Harpy, to go a-head, with the vessels appointed to lie as beacons N. W. of the town of Ostend, and for captain Bradby, in the Ariadne, to keep between the Expedition and Harpy, that we might approach as near the coast as possible, without the chance of being discovered from the shore. At one A. M. we anchored; soon afterwards the wind shifted to west, and threatened to blow so much that the general and myself were deliberating whether it would not be better to go to sea and wait a more favourable opportunity, when a boat from

the Vigilant brought a vessel alongside, which she had cut out from under the light-house battery; and the information obtained from the persons who were on board her, under separate examinations, so convinced us of the small force at Ostend, Newport, and Bruges, that major-general Coote begged he might be landed to accomplish the great object of destroying the canals, even if the risk should prevent his retreat being so successful as he could wish. I of course acceded to his spirited proposition, and ordered the troops to be landed as fast as possible, without waiting for the regular order of debarkation. Many of the troops were on shore before we were discovered; and it was not till a quarter past four that the batteries opened on the ships, which was instantly returned in a most spirited manner, by captain Mortlock, of the Wolvereene, lieutenant Edmonds, of the Asp, and lieutenant Norman, of the Biter. The Hecla and Tartarus bombs very soon opened their mortars, and threw their shells with great quickness and precision. The town was on fire several times, and much damage was done to the ships in the basin. By five o'clock all the troops ordered to land, except those from the Minerva, were on shore with their artillery, miners, wooden petards, tools and gunpowder; and, before six, I heard from general Coote, that he had no doubt of blowing up the works. I now became very anxious for the situation of the major-general, from the state of the weather; and I ordered all the gun-boats that had anchored

Flaxer, D. Burgefs; Lion, S. Bevel; Circe, R. Winthrop; Vefal, C. White; Hebe, W. Brichall; Druid, C. Aphorpe; Terrier, T. Lowen; Vefuve, W. Elliott; Furnace, M. W. Suckling. To keep to the weftward, for the purpose of making a feint to land there; Champion, H. Raper; Dart, R. Raggett; Wolvereene, L. M. Mortlock; Crash, B. M. Fraud; Boxer, J. Gilbert; Acute, J. Seaver.

to the eastward of the town to get as near the shore as possible, to cover and assist the troops in their embarkation. The batteries at the town continued their fire on the Wolverine, Asp, and Biter; and as the Wolverine had received much damage, and the Asp had been lying near four hours within 300-yards of the battery, I made their signal to move, and soon after directed the Dart, Harpy, and Kite, to take their stations, that the enemy might be prevented from turning their guns against our troops; but, it being low water, they could not get so near as their commanders wished. At half past nine, the Minerva came in; and as I thought an additional number of troops would only add to the anxiety of the general, from the little probability of being able to embark them; I sent captain Mackellar on shore to report his arrival with four light companies of the guards. In his absence, colonel Ward filled two flat boats with his officers and men, and was proceeding with every zeal to join the battalion of guards, without considering the danger he was exposed to in crossing the surf, when captain Bradby fortunately saw him, and advised him to return immediately to his ship. At 20 minutes past ten, I had the pleasure of seeing the explosion take place; and, soon after, the troops assembled on the sand-hills near the shore; but the sea ran so high, that it was impossible to embark a single man; therefore I could only make every arrangement against the wind moderated; and this morning, at day-light, I went in shore, on the Kite, for the purpose of giving every assistance, but I had the notification to see our army surrounded by the enemy's troops: and, as I had no doubt the general

had capitulated, I ordered all the ships to anchor farther out, and I sent in a flag of truce, by colonel Boone, of the guards, and captain Brown, of the Kite, with a letter to the commandant, a copy of which I inclose for their lordships' information. At ten this morning, the general's aide-de-camp, captain Williamson, came on board; and though it was very painful to hear general Coote was wounded, after all his exertions, yet it was very satisfactory to learn, that, under many disadvantageous circumstances, and after performing a service of such consequence to our country, the loss, in killed and wounded, was only between 50 and 60 officers and privates; and that the general capitulated in consequence of being surrounded by several thousands of the national troops. I inclose, for their lordships' information, a copy of such minutes as were left me by captain Williamson, from which their lordships will see the sluice-gates and works are completely destroyed, and several vessels, intended for transports, burnt. I this morning learnt that the canal was quite dry, and that the works destroyed yesterday had taken the states of Bruges five years to finish. I hope their lordships will be satisfied that the enemy was surprised, and every thing they wished was accomplished, although the loss of the troops far exceeded any calculation, except under the particular circumstances of the wind's coming to the northward, and blowing very hard. If the weather had continued fine, the troops would have been embarked by twelve, at which time their turn of killed and wounded did not exceed four rank and file. I cannot help again noticing the particular good conduct of captain Mortlock, lieutenant Edmonds, and lieutenant.

lieut. Norman, and beg to recommend them to their lordships' protection. General Coote sent to inform me that he was highly pleased with the uncommon exertions of captains Winthrop and Bradby, and lieutenant Bradby, who had acted on shore as his aide de-camp: he also noticed the assistance he had derived from captain Mackellar, after his landing. I take the liberty of sending this dispatch by capt. Winthrop, of the *Circe*, who commanded the seamen landed from the different ships; and, as he had the particular charge of getting the powder and mines up for the destruction of the works, in which he so ably succeeded, he will be enabled to inform their lordships of every circumstance. Captain Mackellar, with the officers and men on shore, were included in the capitulation; but I have not yet been able to collect an exact return of the number of seamen taken. I transmit you a list of killed and wounded on board his majesty's ships; and have the honour to be, &c.

HOME POPHAM.

To the Officer commanding the Troops of the National Convention at Ostend; dated on board his Majesty's Ship Expedition, Ostend Roads, May 20.

SIR,

I have just heard with concern that the British troops and seamen under the command of major-gen. Coote, and captain Mackellar, of the royal navy, have capitulated to the troops of the republic; and I trust they will be treated with that attention which is due to officers and men executing the orders of their sovereign. It has been the invariable rule of the British government to make the situation of prisoners as comfortable as possible; and I am sure, sir, in this instance,

you will do the same to the troops, &c. who have fallen into your hands. It will not be against any rule to exchange the prisoners immediately, but, on the contrary, add to your name by marking it with humanity and liberality; and I give you my word, the same number of troops, or other prisoners, shall be instantly sent from England to France, with such officers as you shall name, or as shall be named by the national convention, provided no public reason attaches against the release of any particular person. I have sent the officers what things they left on board the ship, and I am confident you will order them to be delivered as soon as possible. I beg you will allow the officers and men to write letters to England by this flag, as a satisfaction to their families, it being impossible for me to know who have fallen, or received wounds, which I hope will be very considerable, from the accounts I have received from the shore. I beg your answer to this letter without loss of time; and confide in your liberality towards the troops under capitulation to you.

HOME POPHAM.

Extract from the Minutes left on board the Expedition by Captain Williamson, Aide-de-Camp to Gen. Coote, dated 10 A. M. May 20, Ostend Roads.

Sluice-gates destroyed in the most complete manner. Boats burnt, and every thing done, and the troops ready to embark by twelve o'clock. When we found it impossible to embark, took the strongest position on the sand-hills, and about four in the morning were attacked by a column of 600 men to our left, an immense column in front, with cannon, and a very large column on the right. The general

general and troops would have all been off, with the loss of not more than three or four men, if the wind had not come to the northward soon after we landed, and made so high a sea. We have not been able to ascertain the exact number of men killed and wounded; but it is supposed they amount to about 50 or 60.

Killed and wounded in his Majesty's Ships and Vessels under the command of Home Popham, Esq. Ostend Roads, May 19.

Seamen, &c. of *Wolverene*, 1 killed, 10 wounded. 23d regiment, on board the *Wolverene*, 1 killed, 5 wounded. Asp, 1 seaman killed, lieutenant Edmonds wounded.

HOME POPHAM.

Parliament-street, May 22. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, from lieutenant-colonel Warde, of the 1st regiment of guards, dated on board the Expedition frigate, eight o'clock, P. M. May 20.

SIR,

In consequence of the *Minerva* frigate (on board which were the four light infantry companies of the 1st regiment of foot guards) having unfortunately lost her situation in the Squadron under the command of captain Popham, of the royal navy, during the night of the 18th inst. the command of the remainder of the troops, from that accident, has devolved upon me: and I have the honour to transmit to you the most correct account that I have been enabled to collect. Early on the morning of the 19th inst. the following troops, under the command of major-general Coote, viz. two companies, light infantry, Coldstream guards; two ditto, ditto, 3d

guards; 11th regiment of foot; 23d and 49th flank companies, with six pieces of ordnance, disembarked, and effected their landing, at three o'clock in the morning, to the eastward of Ostend, and completed the object of the expedition, by burning a number of boats destined for the invasion of England, and by so completely destroying the locks and basin-gates of the Bruges canal, that it was this morning without a drop of water; and, as I understand all the transports sitting out at Flushing were intended to be brought to Ostend and Dunkirk by the inland navigation, to avoid our cruisers, that arrangement will be defeated, and it will be a long time before the works can be repaired, as they were five years finishing, and were esteemed the most complete works of the kind in Europe. The troops had retreated, and were ready to re-embark by twelve o'clock the same morning, with the loss of only one rank and file killed, and one seaman wounded; but found it impossible, from the wind having increased, and the surf running so high, as entirely to prevent their regaining the boats; upon which they took up a position on the sand-hills above the beach, where they lay the whole of that day and night upon their arms. — The enemy, taking advantage of the length of time and the night, collected in very great force, and, soon after day-break this morning, attacked them on every side, when, after a most noble and gallant defence, I am grieved to add, they were under the necessity of capitulating to a very great superiority of numbers.

I herewith inclose a list of the killed and wounded, and have every reason to believe it correct: Lieut.-colonel

colonel Hely, 11th foot, killed; major-general Coote, wounded; col. Campbell, 3d guards, wounded; major Donkin, 44th foot, wounded; captain Walker, royal artillery, wounded.

I am, &c. HENRY WARDE.

This gazette also contains accounts of the capture of Le Leopard French letter of marque, by the Petterel sloop, captain Caulfield; the Renommée French privateer, by the Astrea, captain R. Dacres; and Le Chasseur, and La Drafon, (two French privateers) by the Cruiser, lieutenant Wollaston.

27. In consequence of what passed in a great assembly on Friday last, Mr. Pitt, accompanied by Mr. Ryder, and Mr. Tierney, accompanied by Mr. G. Walpole, met at three o'clock this afternoon, on Putney heath. After some ineffectual attempts on the part of the seconds to prevent farther proceedings, the parties took their ground at the distance of twelve paces. A case of pistols was fired at the same moment, without effect. A second case was also fired in the same manner, Mr. Pitt firing his pistol in the air. The seconds then jointly interfered, and insisted that the matter should go no farther, it being their decided opinion, that sufficient satisfaction had been given, and that the business was ended with perfect honour to both parties.

From the London Gazette, May 29.

Edinburgh, May 29. Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, May 24, 1798.

My Lord,

The intelligence contained in

my last dispatches must have prepared your grace to hear of some attempts being made by the rebels, to carry their traitorous designs into execution before every possibility of success was destroyed by the vigorous measures which have lately been pursued.

For some days, orders had been issued by the leaders of the United Irishmen, directing their partisans to be ready at a moment's notice, as the measures of government made it necessary for them to act immediately. Yesterday information was received, that it was probable the city and the adjoining districts would rise in the evening; subsequent information confirmed this intelligence. In consequence of which, notice was sent to the general officers in the neighbourhood, and Dublin was put in a state of preparation. The measures taken in the metropolis prevented any movement whatsoever; but I am concerned to acquaint your grace, that acts of open rebellion were committed in the counties of Dublin, Meath, and Kildare. About half past two o'clock this morning, there was a regular attack made by a rebel force upon the town of Naas, where lord Gosford commanded, with part of the Armagh militia, and detachments of the 4th dragoon guards and Ancient British. The rebels consisted of about a thousand men, armed with muskets and pikes, and they made their attack with regularity, but were soon repulsed by the Armagh militia, and then charged and pursued by the 4th dragoon guards and Ancient British; and I understand their loss amounted to near two hundred. Two officers and a few privates have been lost of his majesty's forces. It gives me pain to relate, that a small detachment at the

the town of Prosperous has been surprised, and a detachment at the village of Clare cut their way to Naas, with some loss. There was also an attack on a small party of the 9th dragoons, near Kilkullen, which suffered, but in the course of the day, general Dundas was enabled to come up with a considerable body of the rebels near the hills of Kilkullen, where they were entirely routed, with the loss of 200 men. There were also several bodies collected last night in different parts near Dublin, which were attacked by the Rathfarnham cavalry, and by a detachment of the 5th dragoons, and dispersed with some loss, and some prisoners and horses were taken. A rebel party, however, assembled at the borders of the county of Dublin, near Dunboyne, and overpowered some constables, and afterwards took the baggage of two companies, guarded by a small party of the Royal constables, coming to town, and were, during the course of this day, committed many outrages; several of them, however, have been killed, but the body remains undispersed. The city is tranquil, and have no doubt will remain so this evening, and I trust that to-morrow we shall entirely disperse that body of the insurgents which has not been entirely routed to-day.

I must add that the mail-coach going to the north was attacked, within a few miles of Dublin, by a lost body, well armed; the passengers were taken and the coach armed. The Galway mail coach was also attacked in the town of Meath, but the rebel party was driven off before its destruction was effected.

In consequence of this desperate conduct of the rebellious, I send the inclosed proclamation, 1798.

with the advice of the privy council.

I shall, in a future dispatch, detail to your grace the particular services which have been performed, but at present I am not furnished with regular reports, except from lord Gosford, who appears to have acted with great firmness and decision.

I am, &c. &c.

CAMDEN.

His grace the duke of Portland,
&c. &c. &c.

Extract of a Letter from Lord Viscount Gosford, Colonel of the Armagh Militia, and Major Wardle, of the Ancient British Light Dragoons, to Lieut.-Gen. Lake, dated Naas, Thursday Morning, Eight o'Clock, 24th of May, 1798:

This morning, about half past two o'clock, a dragoon from an out-post came in and informed major Wardle, of the Ancient British, that a very considerable armed body were approaching rapidly upon the town. The whole garrison were instantly under arms, and took up their positions according to a plan previously formed, in case of such an event happening. They made the attack upon our troops, posted near the gaol, with great violence, but were repulsed; they then made a general attack in almost every direction, as they had got possession of almost every avenue into the town. They continued to engage the troops for near three-quarters of an hour, when they gave way, and fled on all sides. The cavalry immediately took advantage of their confusion, charged in almost every direction, and killed a great number of them. A great quantity of arms and pikes were taken, and within this half hour, many hundreds more were brought in, found in pits near the

(E) town,

town, together with three men with green cockades, all of whom were hanged in the public street. We took another prisoner, whom we have spared, in consequence of his having given us information that will enable us to pursue these rebels; and from this man we learn that they were above a thousand strong: they were commanded, as this man informs us, by Michael Reynolds, who was well mounted, and dressed in yeoman uniform, but unfortunately made his escape; his horse we have got.

When we are enabled to collect further particulars, you shall be made acquainted with them. About thirty rebels were killed in the streets; in the fields, we imagine, above an hundred; their bodies have not yet been brought together.

It is impossible to say too much of the cavalry and infantry; their conduct was exemplary throughout.

Dublin Castle, May 25, 1798, half past three, P. M.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-General Dundas, to Lord Viscount Castlereagh, dated Naas, May 25, 1798.

In addition to the account I had the honour of sending you yesterday, I have the satisfaction to inform your lordship, that about two P. M. yesterday, I marched out again to attack the rebels, who had assembled in great force on the north side of the Liffey, and were advancing towards Kilcullen bridge: they occupied the hills on the left of the road leading to Dublin, the road itself, and the fields highly inclosed on the right. The attack began between three and four; was made with gallantry; the infantry forcing the enemy on the road, and driving them from the hills on the left; the cavalry,

with equal success, cutting off their retreat. The affair ended soon after four. The slaughter was considerable for such an action; one hundred and thirty lay dead—no prisoners.

I have the further satisfaction of stating to your lordship, that his majesty's troops did not suffer in either killed or wounded. The rebels left great quantities of all kinds of arms behind them, and fled in all directions.

This morning all is in perfect quietness. General Wilford, from Kildare, joined me last night, an officer with whom I serve with unspeakable satisfaction.

The troops of every description, both officers and men, shewed a degree of gallantry which it was difficult to restrain within prudent bounds.

Captain La Touche's corps of yeomanry distinguished themselves in a high style.

Dublin Castle, May 24, 1798.
My Lord,

I have the honour to send to your grace a copy of a message which I sent this day to both houses of parliament, in consequence of the proclamation referred to in my other dispatch of this day; and I request you will lay the same before his majesty.

Both houses of parliament have unanimously voted addresses in answer to the said message, which I shall have the honour to transmit to you to-morrow, with an account of what passed in each house upon the occasion.

I have the honour to be,
with great truth and respect,
My Lord,
your grace's most obedient,
humble servant,

CAMDEN.

His grace the duke of Portland, &c.
Camden,

Camden,

I have thought it my indispensable duty, by and with the advice of the privy council, under the present circumstances of this kingdom, to issue a proclamation, a copy of which I have ordered to be laid before the house of commons.

C.

Dublin Castle, May 24, 1798.

JUNE.

Whitehall, June 1. The following dispatch has been this day received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, May 28, half past 4, P. M.

My Lord,

Intelligence has been received that the insurrection is spreading southward, and it has broke out in great force in the county of Wexford; and I have to inform your grace, with infinite concern, that the rebels in that quarter have assembled in such force that they have cut off a party of 100 men of the North Cork militia, who were sent to meet them. Col. Foote, who has returned to Wexford, states the number of the rebels to be at least 4000, and a great number of them mounted. Measures are taken to march against this body; and I hope they will be met and defeated. I have received accounts from col. Campbell, at Athy, between whom and general Dundas the communication has been stopped, that he has had partial engagements with the rebels; that at Monastereven and Carlow they have been defeated, and 400 killed at the latter place, and 500 at the former. He also informs general Lake, that his men are in high spirits. I will not close this letter till the last moment of the mail

leaving Dublin, that I may give your grace the last information.

CAMDEN.

Nine o'clock, P. M. No farther accounts have been received from the country since the middle of the day. General Lake went to Naas last night, and is not yet returned. I enclose your grace the publication put forth this day by the Roman catholics.

To such of the deluded people, now in rebellion against his majesty's government in this kingdom, as profess the Roman catholic religion.

The undersigned Roman catholics of Ireland feel themselves earnestly called on to remonstrate with such of the deluded people of that persuasion as are now engaged in open rebellion against his majesty's government on the wicked tendency and consequences of the conduct which they have embraced. They apprehend, with equal horror and concern, that such deluded men, in addition to the crime committed against the allegiance which they owe to his majesty, have in some instances attempted to give to their designs a colour of zeal for the religion which they profess! — The undersigned profess equally with them the Roman catholic religion; some of them are bishops of that persuasion; others are heads of the leading families who profess that religion; and others are men of the same persuasion, who, by an honourable industry, have, under the constitution now sought to be subverted, raised themselves to a situation which affords them, in the most extensive sense, all the comforts of life. The undersigned, of each description, concur in entreating such of the deluded, who have taken up arms against the established go-

(E 2) vernment,

vernment, or entered into engagements tending to that effect, to return to their allegiance, and by relinquishing the treasonable plans in which they are engaged, to entitle themselves to that mercy which their lawful governors anxiously wish to extend to them: a contrary conduct will inevitably subject them to loss of life and property, and expose their families to ignominy and beggary—whilst, at the same time, it will throw on the religion, of which they profess to be advocates, the most indelible stain. On this point, the unfortunately deluded will do well to consider, whether the true interests or honour of the Roman catholic religion are likely to be most considered by the bishops of that persuasion, by the ancient families who profess that religion, and who have resisted every temptation to relinquish it—by men who, at once professing it, and submitting to the present constitution, have arrived at a state of affluence which gratifies every wish—or by a set of wretched and profligate men, availing themselves of the want of education and experience in those whom they seek to use as instruments for gratifying their own wicked and interested views. At all events, the undersigned feel themselves bound to rescue their names, and, as far as in them lies, the religion which they profess, from the ignominy which each would incur, from an appearance of acquiescence in such criminal and irreligious conduct; and they hesitate not to declare, that the reconciliation of the views of the deluded of their persuasion, if effected, must be effected by the downfall of the clergy—of the ancient families, and respectable commercial men of the Roman catholic religion. The undersigned in-

dividuals of each of which description hereby publicly declare their determination to stand or fall with the present existing constitution.

[It is signed by the four titular archbishops, by 22 titular bishops, by the lords Fingall, Southwell, Gormastown, and Kenmare; sir Edward Bellew, sir Thomas Burke, and several other leading men among the catholics.]

Whitehall, June 2. The following dispatch has been this day received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, May 29.

My Lord,

I have only time to inform your grace, that I learn from general Dundas, that the rebels in the Curragh of Kildare have laid down their arms, and delivered up a number of their leaders. By a dispatch I have this instant received, I have the further pleasure of acquainting your grace, that sir James Duff, who with infinite alacrity and address has opened the communication with Limerick (that with Cork being already open), had arrived at Kildare whilst the rebels had possession of it, completely routed them, and taken the place.

I am, &c.

CAMDEN.

P. S. The south is entirely quiet, and the rebels in the neighbourhood of Dublin are submitting and delivering up their arms.

Quoted report from major general sir James Duff, dated 24th pererian, May 29.

I marched from Limerick on Sunday morning, with 60 dragoons, the Dublin militia, their field-pieces, with two curricie guns, to open the communication with Dublin, which I judged of the utmost importance to government. By means of cars for the infantry,

I reached

I reached this place in 48 hours. I am now, at seven o'clock this morning (Monday), marching to surround the town of Kildare, the head-quarters of the rebels, with 7 pieces of artillery, 140 dragoons, and 350 infantry. I have left the whole country behind me perfectly quiet, and well protected by means of the troops and yeomanry corps. I hope to be able to forward this to you by the mail-coach, which I will exert to Naas. I am sufficiently strong: you may depend on my prudence and success. My guns are well manned, and the troops in high spirits. The cruelties that have been committed on some of the officers and men have exasperated them to a great degree. Of my future operations I will endeavour to inform you.

I am, &c. JAMES DUFF.

Tuesday, 2 o'clock, P. M. Kildare.

P. S. We found the rebels retiring from the town; on our arrival, armed. We followed them with the dragoons. I sent on some of the yeomen to tell them, that, on laying down their arms, they should not be hurt. Unfortunately, some of them fired on the troops; from that moment they were attacked on all sides: nothing could stop the rage of the troops; I believe from 200 to 300 of the rebels were killed. We have 3 men killed and several wounded. I am too much fatigued to enlarge.

J. DUFF.

Admiralty-Office, June 2. This gazette contains accounts of the capture of La Violetta French privateer sloop, belonging to Guadalupe, of 6 guns and 36 men, by his majesty's ship Amphitrite, captain Blin; the Jase Nantaize French privateer, of 4 guns and 39 men, by the Garland, of 6 guns and 18 men, tender to his majesty's ship Prince of Wales,

Mr. Francis Banks. La Revanche French schooner privateer, of 12 brass six-pounders and 88 men; Brutus French lugger privateer, of 6 six-pounders and 50 men; the St. Antonia Spanish schooner, pierced for 16 guns, but had 6 six-pounders only mounted; Les Huit Amis French ship privateer, of 20 six pounders and 160 men; all by his majesty's ship Encymin, or Thomas Williams.

Dublin Castle, June 2. Accounts have been received from major-general Enslane, at New Ross, stating that major-general Fawcett having marched with a company of the Meath regiment from Duncannon Fort, this small force was surrounded by a very large body between Taghmon and Wexford, and defeated. Gen. Fawcett effected his retreat to Duncannon Fort. The rebels are in possession of Wexford; but a large force is marching to dislodge them.

Witchall, June 4. The following dispatch has been this day received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, June 2.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that a dispatch was this day received by lieutenant-general Fane from colonel L'Estrange, of the King's County militia, which states, that the town of Newtown Barry had been attacked yesterday morning by a very considerable body of rebels from Vinegar Hill. They surrounded the town in such a manner, that colonel L'Estrange at first retreated, in order to collect his force. He then attacked the rebels, drove them through the town, with great slaughter, and pursued them several miles, until night obliged them to retreat. Above 500 of the rebels were killed. Col. L'Estrange's detachment consisted

of 230 of the King's County militia, 17 dragoons, and about 100 yeomen. Colonel L'Estrange speaks in the highest terms of the conduct of the troops, and gives much praise to major Marley, who volunteered on the occasion. I have accounts from Mr. Cornwall, that a picquet-guard of his yeomen surprised, in the night, a party of rebels endeavouring to enter the county of Carlow, and completely defeated them.

CAMDEN.

This gazette also contains accounts of the capture of *Le Furet* French privateer schooner, belonging to Guadeloupe, of 2 guns and 27 men; *Le Hardi* French privateer schooner, belonging to Guadeloupe, of 4 guns and 47 men; *La Rosiere* French privateer schooner, of 2 guns and 15 men.

6. The execution of Mr. Reeves, Mr. Wilkinson, and Mr. Adamson, took place in the front of Newgate. Great interest was made for the two latter, and the deliberations of the privy council on their case lasted above two hours and a half.

8. O'Coigley, for high treason, was executed at Pennenden Heath. He persisted to the last in his innocence of ever having carried on an improper correspondence with the French.

Whitehall, June 9. The following dispatch has been received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, June 4.

My Lord,

Yesterday a dispatch was received from major-gen. Loftus, conveying information from lieut. Elliott, of the Antrim militia, that the troops in Gorey, consisting of 30 of the Antrim militia, a subaltern detachment of the North Cork, the Gorey yeoman cavalry, Ballykeer, and part of the Camolin cavalry, at-

tacked the rebels at Ballycanoe, about three o'clock on the 1st inst. defeated them, and killed above 100 of them. I have the satisfaction to inform your grace, that the city remains tranquil. The patience, the spirit, and continued exertions of the yeomanry are unequalled, and I cannot sufficiently applaud the indefatigable zeal of major-general Myers, who has undertaken the arrangement of them with a promptitude and ability which has been of the most essential advantage. I am, &c. CAMDEN.

Dublin Castle, June 5, five P. M.

Major Marley is just arrived from major-general Loftus, and brings an account that the major-general, finding that colonel Walpole's detachment had received a check, thought it prudent to move to Carnew, which he effected without the loss of a man. It appears that colonel Walpole had met with the main body of the rebels in a strong post near Slievebuy Mountain, and having attacked them, he was unfortunately killed by a shot in the head in the beginning of the action, when his corps, being in a situation where it could not act with advantage, was forced to retire to Arklow. The loss was 54 men killed and mising, and 2 six-pounders. Capt. Stark, capt. Armstrong, and capt. Duncan, were wounded, but not dangerously; and sir Watkins William Wynne received a contusion in the hand.

Whitehall, June 10. The following dispatch has been received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, June 8.

My Lord,

I am to acquaint your grace, that early this morning lieutenant-general Lake received an express from major-general Johnson, dated the 5th inst. at New Ross. The major-general

general states, that the rebels had on that morning attacked his position at New Ross, with a very numerous force, and with great impetuosity; but that, after a contest of several hours, they were completely repulsed. The loss of the rebels was prodigiously great. An iron gun on a ship carriage was taken, and late in the evening they retreated entirely to Carrick Byrne, leaving several iron ship guns, not mounted. General Johnson states, that too much praise cannot be given to the forces under his command; and that to major-general Eustace, and indeed to every individual, he was in the highest degree indebted for their spirited exertions. The major-general severely regrets the loss of that brave officer lord Mountjoy, who fell early in the contest. A return of killed and wounded of his majesty's forces has not been received, but it appears not to be considerable.

CAMDEN.

Whitehall, June 12. The following dispatches have been this day received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin Castle, June 9.

My Lord,

It is with the utmost concern I acquaint your grace an insurrection has broken out in the county of Antrim; and, in order to give your grace the fullest information in my power, I enclose to you an extract of a letter received this morning by lord Castlereagh from major-general Nugent. I am in great hope, from the numbers and spirit of the loyal in that part of the country, the insurgents may be quickly checked.

I am, &c.

CAMDEN.

My Lord, *Belfast, June 8.*

I have the honour to report to your lordship, that, in consequence of information which I received

early yesterday morning, of an intended insurrection in the county of Antrim, having for its first object the seizure of the magistrates, who were to assemble that day in the town of Antrim, I apprehended several persons in Belfast. I did not receive the intelligence early enough to prevent the insurgents from taking possession of Antrim, and I am not, therefore, acquainted with their first proceedings there; but I prevented many magistrates from leaving Belfast; and many others, being officers of yeomanry, on permanent duty, did not attend the meeting. I ordered the 64th regiment, and light battalion, and 100 of the 22d light dragoons, under col. Clavering, and lieutenant-col. Lumley, with two 5½ inch howitzers, and 2 currie six-pounders, to proceed with the utmost dispatch through Lisburn to Antrim. I also ordered from the garrison 250 of the Monaghan militia, with lieutenant-col. Ker, and 50 of the 22d dragoons, together with the Belfast yeomanry cavalry, with major Smith, to proceed under the command of colonel Durham, with 2 currie six-pounders, through Carmoney and Templepatrick to Antrim, to co-operate with the other detachment. The dragoons under lieutenant-col. Lumley having made the attack upon the town, without waiting for the light battalion, were fired upon from the windows of the houses, and were consequently obliged to retreat, with the loss of (I am sorry to add) three officers of that excellent regiment, killed and wounded, and the two currie six-pounders. Col. Clavering, on his arrival near Antrim, finding the rebels pouring into that town in great force, very judiciously took post on a hill on the Lisburn side, and reported his situation to major-gen.

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Goldie.

Goldie. In the mean time, col. Durham, with his whole detachment, proceeded to within half a mile of Antrim, and, after a cannonade of half an hour, drove the insurgents completely out of the town, and retook the two curricule guns, together with one brass six-pounder, very badly mounted, of which it seems the rebels had two, supposed to have been smuggled out of Belfast. The colonel then proceeded, without the loss of a man, through the town, (which, for obvious reasons, suffered much) to Shane's Castle and Randalstown, in which direction the principal part of the rebels fled; he remains there still for orders from me. Lord O'Neil, I am sorry to say, is dangerously wounded. Lieut.-col. Leslie, of the Tay fencibles, reports to me, from Carrickfergus, that lieut. Small, with a detachment of 20 men of that corps, in the barrack at Larne, defended themselves most gallantly against the attack of a numerous body, and maintained their post with the loss of 2 killed and 3 wounded, including the lieutenant. I have ordered them into headquarters at Carrickfergus. The Glenarm yeomanry (60 strong) being also threatened by an attack in the course of the day, took possession of Glenarm Castle, where they will maintain themselves, if possible. Brigadier-general Knox, having heard of a party of the Toome yeomanry being made prisoners by the insurgents, sent to me very early this morning to offer to march, by Toome bridge, into the county of Antrim, which I have desired him to do, in order to liberate col. Durham's detachment, and enable them to cross the country on their return to Belfast. Although the insurrection has been pretty general in the county, I do

not find they had much success; but I have not received, as yet, any reports from Balleycastle, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Portglenore, and other places in the northern parts, in which yeomanry are stationed. As my information led to a general rising in the county of Down, I have been obliged to call in all the small detachments of the York fencibles to Newton Ardes. Col. Stapleton has every thing in readiness, to move at a moment's warning. The yeomanry are all on permanent duty throughout the counties of Down and Antrim; and I have distributed arms to 140 loyal men in Belfast, who will be attached to the Monaghan and Fifeshire regiments, and thereby become very useful. Officers of service are very numerous. I cannot close this letter without expressing to your lordship my entire approbation of the conduct of the troops of all descriptions, in this part of the northern district. Their zeal and attention to their duties cannot be surpassed: and I trust that when occasion offers, they will act in that concert which is so much to be wished for in military service. Lieut.-col. Lumley, I am afraid, is badly wounded in the leg: cornet Dunn is killed, and lieut. Murphy slightly wounded, all of the 22d light dragoons. I understand, but not officially, that some yeomanry from lord Hertford's estate (I believe the Derriaghy) were with the dragoons when they made the unsuccessful attack on Antrim, and they retired to Antrim Castle, where they were relieved by col. Durham. Col. Durham deserves my warmest praise for his judicious and spirited conduct. He speaks in high terms of the detachment under him, and particularly the Monaghan militia. The rev. Steele Dickson was taken
up

up the night before last, and sent prisoner here, where he will be confined in a place of safety, as well as many others, whom it is now necessary to apprehend. Your lordship may depend upon my individual exertions in this unpleasant contest; and as I am ably supported, I make no doubt that we shall prevent the rebels from gaining any advantages, and ultimately oblige them to return to their allegiance. I shall write again to-morrow, should any material event occur.

G. NUGENT, major-gen.

Dublin Castle, June 9.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inclose herewith to your grace farther particulars respecting the action at New Ross, which have been received in a letter from major-gen. Johnson, to lieutenant-gen. Lake, of which I transmit your grace an extract, with two returns annexed.

CAMP N.

Extract of a Letter from Major-general Johnson, to Lieutenant-gen. Lake, dated at Ross, June 7.

I find you a return of the killed, wounded, and missing of the troops engaged on the 5th instant. Their numbers you will, I trust, find not great, when you take into consideration the numbers they were opposed to. I likewise find a return of the ordnance, ammunition, and standards, taken from the rebels. The number killed cannot be ascertained. In my former letter I was prevented, by a pressure of business, doing justice to the merits of several officers, to whom I am highly indebted for their extraordinary exertions. General Eustace, col. Crawford, A. Q. M. G. lieutenant-colonels Stewart, 89th regiment, commanding light infantry; Maxwell, Donegal militia; majors, Vanaclore, Clare militia; Vesey, county of Dublin militia; Mellis-

font, my aide-de-camp, and major of brigade Sandford, are entitled to my fullest praise. I should not omit lieutenant Eustace, the general's aide-de-camp, who is a very promising young man. To lieutenant-col. James Foulis, commanding the Mid-Lothian cavalry, and capt. Irvine, commanding the detachment of the 5th and 9th dragoons, I am no less indebted. I cannot say too much in favour of capt. Bloomfield, B. H. artillery, and capt. Thornhill, commanding the royal Irish flying artillery, whose very great exertions contributed very essentially to our success. We had a great loss in col. lord Mountjoy. Capt. Tottenham, yeomanry cavalry, and capt. Boyd, with the debris of his corps, have rendered me every possible assistance. In making mention of those particulars, I would not wish you to suppose I do not feel myself much indebted to every individual, a very few excepted.

Return of the killed, wounded, and missing of the Troops engaged at Ross on the 5th of June.

Killed, 1 colonel, 1 cornet, 1 quarter-master, 24 serjeants, 3 drummers, and 80 rank and file; also 54 horses; wounded, 1 captain, and 57 rank and file; also 5 horses; missing, 1 captain, 3 lieutenants, 1 ensign, 2 serjeants, 2 drummers, 72 rank and file, and 4 horses.

Names of Officers killed, wounded, and missing.

Col. lord Mountjoy, county of Dublin militia, killed; cornet Ladwell, 5th dragoons, killed; capt. Sinclair, Donegal militia, wounded; capt. Warburton and lieutenant Flint, Queen's County militia, missing; lieutenant Harford, Kilkenny militia, missing; lieutenant Blake and lieutenant Buller, of the 89th, attached to the light battalion, missing; quarter-

quarter-master Hay, of Mid-Lothian fencibles, killed.

Return of Ordnance, Stores, &c. taken from the Rebels in the Action of the 5th of June.

1 5 half-inch howitzer, on ship-carriage; 1 iron 4-pounder on ship carriage; 14 swivels, 1 iron 3-pounder, 1 iron 2-pounder, 14 shot of different sizes, an immensity of pikes, which were broken as soon as taken. Also mulquets, likewise destroyed. A variety of standards and colours.

Whitehall, June 14, 1798. Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been this day received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 10, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the satisfaction to acquaint your grace, that yesterday evening a very large body of the Wexford rebels was driven back with great loss from their attack upon major-general Needham's post at Arklow.

The inclosed extract from the major-general's letter to lieutenant-general Lake will furnish your grace with the details of this important advantage.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CAMDEN.

His grace the duke of Portland.

Arklow, June 10, half past five, A.M.

SIR,

About three o'clock, P. M. yesterday, the rebel army presented itself at my out-post in very great numbers.

They approached from Coolgreany road, and along the sand-hills on the shore, in two columns, while the whole of the intermediate space embracing my entire front was crowded by a rabble, armed

with pikes and fire-arms, and bearing down on me without any regular order. The position I had chosen was a very strong one in front of the barrack.

As soon as the enemy approached within a short distance, we opened a heavy fire of grape, which did as much execution as, from the nature of the ground and the strong fences of which they possessed themselves, could have been expected. This continued incessantly from six until half past eight o'clock, when the enemy desisted from their attack, and fled in disorder on every side. The numbers killed have not been ascertained.—Our loss is inconsiderable, and no officer is wounded. A principal leader is among the slain.

Colonel sir W. W. Wynne, with some of the 4th dragoon guards and 5th dragoons, and part of his own regiment, and the yeomanry, charged the rebels most gallantly, and routed a strong column of them attempting to gain the town by the beach. Col. Maxwell offered his services to burn some houses in his front, near the end of the action, and effected it most handsomely, and without loss. Colonel Skerrot, of the Durham fencibles, on whom the brunt of the action fell, acted in the most spirited and determined manner; as did also colonel O'Hara, who commanded the Antrim, and covered the road on my right. The coolness and good conduct of colonel Cope, of the Armagh, does him infinite credit; and it is with the most real satisfaction I add, that the zeal and spirited conduct of the yeomanry corps were every thing I could wish.

To - lieutenant-colonel Blackwood, of the late 33d, and lieutenant-colonel Cleghorn, of the Meath, who did me the honour to serve

serve with me upon this occasion, I am indebted for the most essential services, and I am happy thus to acknowledge my obligations to them both; and of the spirited exertions of Mr. Whaley, I cannot speak too highly.

I must, in justice to my aide-de-camp, capt. Moore, of the 4th dragoon guards, and major of brigade, capt. Needham, of the 9th dragoons, mention their great alertness. To the great activity and information of the former I am much indebted, and he will detail to you all other particulars. (Signed)

FRANCIS NEEDHAM.

Lieutenant-general Lake, &c. &c.

Dublin Castle, June 17, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that a letter has been this day received by lieutenant-general Lake from major-general Nugent, at Belfast, dated the 9th inst. stating that the rebels in the county of Antrim were dispersed in all directions, except at Toome, whither brigadier-general Knox and lieutenant-colonel Clavering were proceeding; and that many of them had laid down their arms.

Major-general Nugent also states, that Mr. McCleverty had returned from Donegors-hill, whither he had been carried prisoner by a body of 2,000 rebels. Whilst they were in this station they disagreed, and quarrelled amongst themselves, and, from his influence and persuasion, above 1,500 left the camp, broke and destroyed their arms, and declared that they would never again carry an offensive weapon against his majesty or his loyal subjects. Many more dispersed, and the commander of them was left with 50 men only.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CAMDEN.

His grace the duke of Portland.

Whitehall, June 16. Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 11.

My Lord,

I am concerned to acquaint your grace, that the accounts received from major-general Nugent this morning are not so favourable as from the details which were yesterday received I had reason to hope. A body of rebels having assembled near Saintfield, they were attacked by a detachment under col. Stapleton, who at first suffered some loss: but he afterwards put the rebels to flight. Being ordered to proceed to Newtown Ardes, col. Stapleton found the rebels in possession of the town, upon which general Nugent ordered him to retire until his force could be augmented.

There is no official account as to the body of rebels which were to be attacked by brigadier-general Knox, at Toome Bridge. Private accounts state that they have been dispersed.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CAMDEN.

His grace the duke of Portland.

Dublin Castle, June 12.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that accounts have been this day received from major-general Nugent, who is at Belfast, which state, that the information he had received of a large body of rebels having entrenched themselves near Toome Bridge, was unfounded. — One arch of the bridge had been broken down by an inconsiderable party, which had been dispersed;

the

the bridge has been since rendered passable.

Colonel Clavering has reported from Antrim to major-general Nugent, that the disaffected in the neighbourhood of that town had expressed a desire to submit, and to return to this day. At Ballymena, 150 muskets and 80 pikes had been given up to the magistrates. Many arms, 500 pikes, and a brass field-piece, had been surrendered to major Seillon.

Major-general Nugent expresses his warmest acknowledgments to the regular, militia, and yeomanry forces under his command, for their alacrity, zeal, and spirit.

Other advices state, that lieutenant-colonel Stewart, having marched from Blaris with a part of the Argyle fencibles, 35 cavalry, and some yeomanry, arrived at Ballynahinch as the rebels were beginning to collect. He received some yeomen who were in their own defence; and one rebel shot into lord Moira's wood, whither they were pursued, a great number of them killed, and the remainder dispersed.

By a letter recd. this morning from my lord of the Castle of Argyle, it appears that he has attacked, with 100 men, a rebel camp at the house near Bally, which he completely dispersed; 20 men were killed and their leader.

I have the honour to be, &c.

His grace the duke of Portland.

Dublin, June 18. A. Clavering, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 13, 1798.

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that intelligence arriv-

ed this day from major-general Nugent, stating, that he had marched against a large body of rebels, who were posted at Saintfield. They retired on his approach to a strong position on the Saintfield side of Ballynahinch, and there made a show of resistance, and endeavoured to turn his left flank; but lieutenant-colonel Stewart arriving from Down, with a pretty considerable force of infantry, cavalry, and yeomanry, they soon desisted, and retired to a very strong position behind Ballynahinch.

General Nugent attacked them next morning at three o'clock, having occupied two hills on the left and right of the town, to prevent the rebels from having any other choice than the mountains in their rear for their retreat; he sent lieutenant-colonel Stewart to post himself, with part of the Argyle fencibles, and some yeomanry, as well as a detachment of the 22d light dragoons, in a situation from which he could enfilade the rebel line, whilst colonel Leslie, with part of the Monaghan militia, some cavalry and yeoman infantry, should make an attack upon their front. Having two howitzers and six six-pounders, with the two detachments, the major-general was enabled to annoy them very much, from different parts of his position.

The rebels attacked impetuously colonel Leslie's detachment, and even jumped into the road from the earl of Moira's demesne, to endeavour to take one of his guns, but they were repulsed with slaughter. Lieutenant-colonel Stewart's detachment was attacked by them with the same activity, but he repulsed them also, and the fire from his howitzer and six-pounder soon obliged them to fly in all directions. Their force was, on the evening of the 12th, near 5000; but as many persons

persons are pressed into their service, and almost entirely unarmed, the general does not suppose that on the morning of the engagement their numbers were so considerable.

About 400 rebels were killed in the attack and retreat, and the remainder were dispersed all over the country. Parts of the town of Saintfield and Ballynahinch were burnt. Major-general Nugent states, that both officers and men deserve praise, for their alacrity and zeal on this as well as on all occasions; but he particularly expresses his obligations to lieutenant-colonel Stewart for his advice and assistance throughout the business, and to colonel L. file for his readiness to volunteer the duty at all times. The yeomanry behaved with extreme steadiness and bravery. Three or four green colours were taken, and one six-pounder, not mounted, but which the rebels fired very often, and a considerable quantity of ammunition. Their chief was Munro, a shopkeeper of Lillburn.

Major-general Nugent regrets the loss of captain Evatt, of the Monaghan militia; Lieutenant Ellis of the same regiment was wounded; the loss of 5 rank and file killed, and 14 wounded. Several of the yeomen infantry were killed or wounded.

The major-general expresses his acknowledgments to lieutenant-colonel Peacock, and major O'Brien of the Machinon, who were of the greatest service.

The Portaferry yeomanry, on the 11th instant, under the command of captain Matthews, made a most gallant defence against a large body of the rebels, who attacked the town of Portaferry—the yeomanry having taken possession of the market-house, from which

post they repulsed the rebels, who left behind them above 40 dead—many more were carried off. Capt. Hopkins, of a revenue cruiser, brought his guns to bear on the town, and was of great service in defending it.

Advices from major-general Sir Charles Asgill, dated from Kilkenny, the 13th instant, state, that on the evening of the 12th, having heard that a large body of the rebels had marched from the county of Wexford against Borris, under the command of Mr. Baginall Harvey, and were burning the town, he proceeded to its relief with 400 men, but the rebels had fled before he could arrive. They had attacked Mr. Kavenagh's house, in which were 20 men of the Donegal militia, who, notwithstanding the incessant fire kept up on them for some hours, defended themselves in the most gallant manner, and killed several of the rebels.—Nothing could surpass the determined bravery of those few men. The rebels effected their escape into the county of Wexford.

A letter received by lieutenant-general Lake from major-general Johnson, dated the 13th instant at New Ross, states, that having received information that the rebels had fitted out several boats and other craft, for the purpose of effecting their escape, he had sent lieutenant Hill, with such armed vessels as could be spared from Fethard, where they were collected, with orders to destroy the whole; which lieutenant Hill effected with his usual spirit, and without loss. Thirteen large sailing hookers and a great many boats were burnt.

I have the honour to be, &c.
CAMDEN.
His grace the duke of Portland, &c.
25. At

25. At a common hall holden at Guildhall this day, William Champion, esq. citizen and grocer, and Peter Mellish, esq. citizen and butcher, were elected sheriffs of London and Middlesex.

The same day, George Hibbert, esq. was unanimously elected alderman of Bridge Ward Within, in the room of sir James Sanderfon bart. deceased.

Whitehall, June 26, 1798. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 21, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that brigadier-general Dunn has reported from Monastereven, that on the 19th inst. he had sent a strong patrol, under the command of capt. Pack, of the 5th dragoon guards, towards Prosperous, from Rathangan; and that captain Pack, having fallen in with a hundred of the rebels, well mounted and appointed, he instantly attacked and defeated them, taking 8 horses, and killing from 20 to 30 men.

Lieutenant-colonel Stewart, of the 5th dragoons, having been detached to Prosperous on the evening of the 19th instant, found a body of rebels posted on a hill on the left of the town, which fled into the neighbouring bog on his approach. His advanced guard having been fired upon, as he approached, from the town, he brought two curricule guns to bear upon it, and set fire to part of the town. Much cattle was left behind by the rebels, which they had pin-

ned up near the mess-room of the barracks, together with many pikes and drums. Eight of the rebels were killed.

Yesterday morning a detachment from Mount Kennedy, under command of lieutenant M'Lann, of the Reay fencibles, and lieutenant Gore, of the Mount-Kennedy cavalry, attacked a body of near 300 rebels near Ballinacush. The fire commenced from the rebels, who were posted behind a hedge on the top of a commanding hill. After an engagement of about twenty minutes, they gave way in every quarter, leaving twenty dead behind them.

It appears by letters from Cork, that an engagement has taken place between a detachment of the Caithness fencibles, assisted by a party of the Westmeath militia, and a considerable body of the rebels. The latter were defeated, with the loss of above 100 men. His majesty's troops appear to have suffered but little in the action.

The north remains quiet.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His grace the duke of Portland, &c.

Parliament-street, June 26, 1798. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, from brigadier-general the hon. Thomas Maitland, commanding his majesty's forces in the island of St. Domingo, dated on board his majesty's ship Thunderer, off Mole St. Nicolas, the 10th of May, 1798.

SIR,

I embrace the very first opportunity of informing you, that on the 22d of last month I came to the resolution of immediately evacuating the towns of Port-au-Prince and

and St. Marc's, with their dependencies, together with the parish of Arcachay; and it is now with great pleasure I have the honour of acquainting you, that this measure has been carried into complete effect, without the smallest loss of any kind, and in a manner, I flatter myself, to give perfect satisfaction as far as, under the circumstances, it was possible, to all the French inhabitants and planters, whether these chose to follow the fortune of his majesty's arms, or to remain in the part of the colony about to be evacuated.

In considering the modes of effecting this very difficult but important object, there seemed to me but two in any degree practicable; the one, to withdraw the small British force, and such of the colonial troops as it was immediately possible to induce to go with us, in a precipitate manner, after blowing up the forts; the other, to state fairly my determination, and, acting as events occurred, to endeavour, in a deliberate way, to withdraw the whole of our stores and force, and at the same time to attempt to obtain some terms for the numerous inhabitants, who, either from necessity or choice, wished to remain.

The first of these measures seemed to me (however wise to the British) to be so perfectly contrary to the spirit of generosity and liberality which has ever actuated the British nation, and so certain of being attended with immediate and shocking scenes of bloodshed among the inhabitants, whose natural impetuosity of character would be increased by contending passions, deluded hopes, and different interests, that I determined at once to set it aside; and I began the 23d ultimo, in consequence of

adopting the second, to embark the heavy stores of every description; stating my full determination to all the parties concerned, and sending at the same time a flag of truce to general Toussaint l'Ouverture, at Gonaives, to acquaint him with my resolution, and leaving to his option, either to obtain the possessions we evacuated in a state of ruin, or in a state of perfect order, provided he would guarantee, in a solemn manner, the lives and properties of such persons as chose to remain.

General Toussaint immediately agreed to the last proposition, and sent to Port-au-Prince on the 28th instant a confidential officer, who, having met lieutenant-colonel Nightingall, deputy adjutant-general, on my part, on the 30th of April the accompanying agreement was mutually exchanged and ratified by both parties.

The stipulation in favour of the inhabitants and planters afforded them the only security in my power to obtain, and with which they were so entirely satisfied, that although at first they had universally resolved to follow the king's forces, yet, upon hearing of this agreement in their favour, many of them who had actually embarked, re-landed; and I think I may safely assure you, there are not ten rich proprietors who have ultimately upon this occasion quitted their properties.

By the 6th instant the whole of the heavy British stores of every description being embarked, and all the French brass guns and mortars, with such of the inhabitants as voluntarily wished to go, and all the merchandize belonging to British merchants, I ordered the parish of L'Arcachay to be evacuated; which was accordingly done the 7th at noon. The 23d, at two o'clock

in the morning, I withdrew the whole of the force from Port-au-Prince, and embarked it at Fort Bizoton; and on the 9th in the morning, the whole fleet sailed to its different destinations.

I have not heard from colonel Grant, who commanded at St. Marc's, but I have every reason to believe he evacuated that place on the 6th or 7th of this month, and I entertain no doubt but that he is now at the Mole, where I ordered him to proceed with his garrison.

You will readily believe, that on such an occasion much military precaution, and much exertion in all the departments must have been necessary, as well for the honour and security of his majesty's arms, as to enable me to move off within a reasonable period.

Of the conduct of the officers and men of his majesty's British and colonial forces, I have nothing to say, but what tends infinitely to their credit.

To the heads of departments I feel myself extremely indebted for the zeal and activity with which they seconded my wishes, most particularly to lieut.-colonels Nightingall and Littlehales, deputies adjutant and quarter-master generals; and to captain Spicer, commanding the royal artillery; nor can I here omit doing myself the pleasure of signifying to you what very essential aid I have received from the zeal and intelligence of Mr. Wiggleworth, his majesty's commissary-general.

To the royal navy I am under every obligation for their cordial assistance throughout the whole of this service; to captains Couchet and Ogilvie of his majesty's ships *Abergavenny* and *Thunderer*, it is principally owing that I was en-

abled to carry my wishes into early effect.

Lieutenant Young, of the navy, chief agent of transports, conducted himself in the execution of this arduous task in such a manner that I should neglect a very material, though pleasant part of my duty, were I not to seize this opportunity to recommend him in the strongest manner to your notice. He is a very old officer, but his length of services has neither impaired his zeal, nor diminished his activity.

I have the honour to be, &c.

THOMAS MAITLAND,

Brigadier-general, commanding in St. Domingo.

The honourable brigadier-general Maitland, commanding in chief his Britannic majesty's forces in the island of St. Domingo, having intimated to general Toussaint l'Ouverture, commanding the French army in the said island, his intention to evacuate the towns of Port-au-Prince, St. Marc's, and their dependencies, with the parish of L'Arcahaye; and having proposed to general Toussaint l'Ouverture, to send a person to Port-au-Prince, charged with full powers, that this object might be effected in a manner most consonant to the interests of humanity and the views of each party; and general Toussaint l'Ouverture, having consented to the above proposals, and having sent to Port-au-Prince Monsieur Huin, adjutant-general to the French army, and lieut.-col. Nightingall, deputy adj.-gen. of his majesty's forces, did meet on board his majesty's ship *Abergavenny*, the 30th April, 1798, when the following conditions were mutually agreed on, and have been since ratified, on the one part by brigadier-general Maitland, commanding in chief

his majesty's forces; and on the other by general Toussaint L'Ouverture, commanding the French army.

Conditions agreed upon between Lieutenant-colonel Nightingall, Deputy Adj.-gen. to his Britannic Majesty's Forces, and Monsieur Huin, Adjutant-general to the Army of General Toussaint L'Ouverture, who are respectively invested with full Powers for that Purpose.

1st. The towns of Port-au-Prince, Saint Marc's, and their dependencies, with their present works, and the parish of L'Arca-haye, shall be left to general Toussaint L'Ouverture in the state agreed upon between us; viz. all the iron guns to be rendered unserviceable, except three or four, by verbal agreement between us, in a given time, which shall be fixed at the period when the British forces can conveniently be withdrawn.

2d. As an express condition, and in consequence of the first article, general Toussaint L'Ouverture engages, in the most solemn and positive manner, to guarantee the lives and properties of all the inhabitants who may choose to remain.

3d. In order to facilitate and accomplish these conditions, it is agreed that there shall be a suspension of arms for a limited time, not exceeding five weeks from this day.

Done on board his majesty's ship Abergavenny, in the road of Port-au-Prince, this 30th day of April, 1798.

(Signed) HUIN, adjutant-general of the army of the French republic.

(Signed) M. NIGHTINGALL, dep. adj.-general to his Majesty's forces.

Admiralty Office, June 26, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from the Earl of 1798.

St. Vincent, K. B. Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board his Majesty's Ship Ville de Paris, the 30th of May, 1798.

SIR,

I inclose a letter from captain Digby, of his majesty's ship the Aurora, acquainting me with his having captured a Spanish brig with dispatches from the Havannah.

I am, sir, &c. &c.

VINCENT.

His majesty's ship Aurora, River Tagus, May 27, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that on my return from seeing the Newfoundland convoy to the westward, I captured, on the 8th instant, in lat. 35 deg. N. long. 26 deg. W. El Recevifo, Spanish brig, mounting 6 guns, Joseph Medina commander, 47 days from Havannah, with government dispatches.

I have the honour to be, &c.

H. DIGBY.

Earl St. Vincent. &c. &c. &c.

Admiralty Office, June 26, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Harvey, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at the Leeward Islands, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Prince of Wales, Basse-Terre Road, St. Christopher's, May 13, 1798.

SIR,

I herewith inclose, for their lordships' information, a copy of a letter which I have received from captain Dickinson, commander of his majesty's sloop Victorieuse, giving an account of his having been attacked off Guadaloupe by two French privateers, one of which he captured, and the other escaped, from his not being able to pursue her without leaving his con-

(F) voy.

voy. I have the honour to be, &c.

HENRY HARVEY.

Victorieuse, St. Kitt's, May 12, 1798.

SIR,

I beg leave to inform you, that on the 7th inst. passing to leeward of Guadaloupe in his majesty's sloop *Victorieuse* under my command, with the trade of Trinidad for St. Kitt's, we saw two French privateers to the windward, who had the temerity to bear down and attack us, with an intention of carrying us by boarding. The one was a schooner of 12 guns and 80 men, the other a sloop of 6 guns and 51 men. The sloop very shortly struck, being nearly sunk, and proves to be the *Brutus*, commanded by citizen Rouffel, belonging to Guadaloupe, ten days out, and had not taken any thing; had 4 killed and 4 wounded. The schooner, I am sorry to say, got off, though extremely damaged, and lost many men, owing to my not being able to chase far from the convoy.

I have the honour to be, &c.

E. S. DICKINSON.

Rear-Admiral Harvey, commander in chief, &c. &c.

Admiralty Office, June 26, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Harvey, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at the Leeward Islands, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the *Prince of Wales*, St. Christopher's, the 13th May, 1798.

SIR,

I am to acquaint you, for the information of their lordships, that captain Warren, in his majesty's sloop *Scourge*, on the 1st instant chased on shore on St. Martin's a French privateer brig, of 14 guns.

The crew, after setting fire to

her, got on shore, and she blew up before the boats which were sent from the *Scourge* could get to her, and was consequently totally destroyed.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HENRY HARVEY.

Prince of Wales, Basse-Terre Road, St. Christopher's, May 13, 1798.

SIR,

I have to acquaint you, for the information of their lordships, that the under-mentioned French privateers, which had been fitted out at Guadaloupe and Porto Rico, have been captured and sent into the different islands at the periods, and by the ships and vessels of his majesty's squadron under my command, as against their names expressed.

By the *Solebay*, captain Poyntz, 17th March, 1798, off Antigua, *Augustine* schooner, of two guns and 23 men.

By the *Matilda*, capt. Mitford, 29th and 31st of March, 1798, to the northward of Antigua, *Le Vantour* sloop, of 10 guns and 64 men; and *L'Aigle* brig, of 12 guns and 86 men.

By *L'Aimable* and *Scourge*, captains Lobb and Warren, 6th and 8th ultimo, off Porto Rico, *Le Triomphe* brig, of 14 guns and 88 men: also *Chasseur* schooner, of 2 guns and 18 men; and on the 20th, by *L'Aimable* alone, *L'Espiegle* schooner, of 2 guns and 18 men; by the *Requin*, commanded by lieutenant Senhouse, the 1st instant, off St. Bartholomew's, *Mutine* sloop, of 6 guns and 44 men.

By the *Tamer*, captain Western, 2d inst. to windward of Barbadoes, *Branle-bas* schooner, of 8 guns and 82 men.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HENRY HARVEY.

Evan Nepean, esq.

Wbite.

Whitehall, June 26, 1798. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 22, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the satisfaction of transmitting to your grace an extract of a letter received this morning by lord viscount Castlereagh, from lieutenant-general Lake, dated Enniscorthy, the 21st instant, and a letter dated the same day at Borris, from major-general sir Charles Aggill, which contain details of the advantages obtained by his majesty's forces against the rebels in the county of Wexford. Private accounts mention that lieutenant-general Lake had his horse shot under him.

I also inclose to your grace the copy of a letter from sir Hugh O'Reilly, lieutenant-colonel of the Westmeath regiment of militia, which contains a report of an action against a body of insurgents, near Cloghnakilty, and which I shortly mentioned to your grace in my dispatch of yesterday.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His grace the duke of Portland, &c.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-General Lake, to Lord Viscount Castlereagh, dated Enniscorthy, June 21.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your lordship, for his excellency the lord lieutenant's information, that the rebel camp upon Vinegar-hill was attacked this morning at

seven o'clock, and carried in about an hour and a half.

The relative importance of this very strong position with our operations against Wexford, made it necessary to combine our attacks so as to insure success. A column, under major-generals Johnson and Eustace, was drawn from Ross, and began the attack upon the town of Enniscorthy, situate upon the right bank of Slaney, close under Vinegar-hill, upon the right, and rather in the rear of it.

Lieutenant-general Dundas commanded the centre column, supported by a column upon the right under major-generals sir J. Duff and Loftus; a fourth column, upon the left, was commanded by the hon. major-general Needham. To the determined spirit with which these columns were conducted, and the great gallantry of the troops, we are indebted for the short resistance of the rebels, who maintained their ground obstinately for the time above-mentioned; but on perceiving the danger of being surrounded, they fled with great precipitation. Their loss is not yet ascertained, but it must be very considerable. The loss on our part is not great, the particulars of which I shall report as soon as possible. In the mean time, I am sorry to say, that lieutenant Sandys, of the Longford regiment, is killed; and that colonel King, of the Sligo, was wounded in gallantly leading his regiment. Lord Blaney and colonel Vesey, of the county of Dublin regiment, are also wounded; but, I am happy to add, that the wounds of those three officers are very slight.

I cannot too highly express my obligations, particularly to lieutenant-general Dundas, and the gene-

ral officers, on this occasion, for the abilities and ardour so strongly manifested by them; nor to the officers of every rank, and the private men, for a prompt, brave, and effectual execution of their orders.

To colonel Campbell, with his light battalion, I am much indebted for their very spirited attack; and great praise is due to the earl of Ancram and lord Roden, for their gallant charge with their regiments at the moment the cavalry was wanted to complete the success of the day.

It is with great gratitude I also beg leave to mention the able assistance I received from major-generals Hewitt and Cradock, and from colonel Handfield, on this, as I do on all occasions; and should be extremely wanting to myself, as well as to lord Glentworth, lieutenant-colonel Blyth and lieutenant-colonel Read (who did me the honour to volunteer their service, and accompany me from Dublin), were I to omit expressing the high sense I entertain of their active and useful aid to me this morning. I also beg leave to mention in the same warm terms my aide-de-camp, captain Nicholson.

To the rapid and well-directed fire of the royal artillery, and the gallantry of their officers and men, for which they have ever been distinguished, I consider myself this day highly indebted; and I am happy in expressing my obligations to captain Bloomfield, commanding the British, and captain Crawford, commanding the Irish royal artillery, with the officers and men under their command.

I have, &c. W. LAKE.

P. S. I have just learned that lieutenant-col. Cole is slightly wounded. Inclosed is a return of the ord-

nance taken on Vinegar-hill, in which are included three taken from us on the 4th of June.

Return of Ordnance, as taken from the Rebels on Vinegar-hill, 21st June, 1798.

3 six-pounders, brass, 1 three-pounder, 7 one-pounders, 1 five half-inch howitzer, 1 four half-inch howitzer. Total 13.

Rounds of Ammunition.

17 six-pounders, 30 one-pounders, 11 five half-inch howitzers.

Note.—A cart, with a vast variety of balls of different diameters, had been thrown down the hill after the action, and immense quantities of lead and leaden balls delivered over to the Dunbarton fencibles.

ROBERT CRAWFORD, R. I. A.
Boris, June 21.

My Lord,

Having received intelligence that many of the rebels, who probably had escaped from their camps in Wexford, had collected near Blackstairs Mountain, and were prevented from proceeding farther, owing to the posts which I occupied, by lieutenant-general Lake's orders, on the Barrow, I marched yesterday morning from hence with two hundred and fifty men, in two divisions, by different routes, to attack them. I found them scattered through the country in considerable numbers; upwards of an hundred were killed, the remainder dispersed, and several arms and pikes were taken.

Lord Loftus, of the Wexford militia, commanded one party under my orders; the honourable colonel Howard, of the Wicklow, the other. The troops behaved, as usual, in the most gallant manner.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES ASGILL, maj.-gen.
Right hon. lord Castlereagh.

SIR,

SIR, *Bandon, June 20.*

I have the honour to inform you, that a party of the Westmeath regiment, consisting of two hundred and twenty men, rank and file, with two six-pounders, under my command, was yesterday attacked on our march from Cloghnakilty to Bandon, near a village called Ballynacarty, by the rebels, who took up the best position on the whole march.

The attack was made from a height on the left of our column of march, with very great rapidity, and without the least previous notice, by between three and four hundred men as nearly as I can judge, armed mostly with pikes, and very few with fire-arms. We had hardly time to form, but very soon repulsed them with considerable loss, when they retreated precipitately, but not in great confusion; and when they regained the height, I could perceive that they were joined by a considerable force. I, with the greatest difficulty and risk to the officers, restrained the men, halted, and formed the greater part of them, when I saw that the enemy were filing off a high bank, with an intent to take possession of our guns.

A detachment of an hundred men of the Caithness legion, under the command of major Innes, on its march to replace us at Cloghnakilty, hearing our fire, pressed forward, and very critically fired upon them, whilst we were forming, and made them fly in every direction with great precipitation. At the same moment a very considerable force showed itself on the heights in our rear. A vast number of pikes appeared, and some with hats upon them, and other signals, I suppose, to collect their forces. I ordered the guns to pre-

pare for action, and very fortunately brought them to bear upon the enemy with good effect, as they dispersed in a short time, and must have left a considerable number of dead. Some were killed in attempting to carry away the dead bodies. It is impossible to ascertain the loss of the enemy; but a dragoon, who came this morning from Cloghnakilty to Bandon, reports that their loss is one hundred and thirty.

I feel most highly gratified by the conduct and spirit of the officers and men of the Westmeath regiment, and had only to complain of the too great ardour of the latter, which it was almost impossible to restrain. I cannot give too much praise to major Innes, captain Innes, and all the officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates, of the Caithness legion, for their cool, steady conduct, and the very effectual support I received from them. Our loss was one serjeant and one private.

I have the honour to be, &c.

H. O'REILLY.

*Lt.-col. Westmeath regiment.
Lieut.-gen. sir James Stewart, bart.*

Whitehall, June 26, 1798. Dispatches have been received here from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, which bring the intelligence of lieutenant-general Lake's having taken possession of Wexford on the 22d instant.

Whitehall, June 26. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 24, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to transmit to
(F 3) your

your grace a dispatch received by Lord viscount Castlereagh, this day, from lieutenant-general Lake, dated Wexford, the 22d instant, together with a letter from brigadier-general Moore, containing an account of his important successes.

I also inclose a copy of the proposals made by the rebels in the town of Wexford, to lieutenant-general Lake, and his answer.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His grace the duke of Portland, &c.

My Lord, *Wexford, June 22,*

Yesterday afternoon I had the honour to dispatch a letter to your lordship, from Enniscorthy, with the transactions of the day, for his excellency the lord lieutenant's information; and the inclosed copy of a letter from brigadier-general Moore to major-general Johnson, will account for my having entered this place without opposition. General Moore, with his usual enterprise and activity, pushed on to this town, and entered it so opportunely, as to prevent it from being laid in ashes, and the massacre of the remaining prisoners, which the rebels declared their resolution of carrying into effect the next day; and there can be little doubt it would have taken place, for the day before they murdered above seventy prisoners, and threw their bodies over the bridge.

Inclosed is a copy of my answer to the proposal of the inhabitants of this town, transmitted in my letter of yesterday to your lordship. The evacuation of the town by the rebels renders it unnecessary. I have the pleasure to acquaint your lordship, that the subscriber of the insolent proposals, Mr. Keughe, and one of their principal leaders, Mr. Roach, with a few others, are in my hands without negotiation.

The rebels are reported to be in some force within five miles of this place; it is supposed, for the purpose of submission, to which the event of yesterday may strengthen their inclination. I have reason to think that there are a number so disposed, and that I shall be able to secure some more of their leaders; but, should I be disappointed in my expectations, and find they collect in any force, I shall lose no time in attacking them.

I have the honour to be, &c.

G. LAKE.

From inquiry, the numbers killed yesterday were very great indeed.

Lord viscount Castlereagh.

Camp above Wexford, June 22.

Dear General,

Agreeable to your order I took post on the evening of the 19th near Cook's Mill, in the park of Mr. Sutton. Next day I sent a strong detachment, under lieutenant-colonel Wilkinson, to patrol towards Tintern and Clonmines, with a view to scour the country and communicate with the troops you directed me to join from Duncannon. The lieutenant-colonel found the country deserted, and got no tidings of the troops. I waited for them until three o'clock in the afternoon, when, despairing of their arrival, I began my march to Taghmon. We had not marched above half a mile, when a considerable body of the rebels was perceived marching towards us. I sent my advanced-guard, consisting of the two rifle companies of the 6th regiment, to skirmish with them, whilst a howitzer and a six-pounder were advanced to a cross-road above Goff's bridge, and some companies of light infantry formed on each side of them, under lieutenant-col. Wilkinson. The rebels attempted

attempted to attack these, but were instantly repulsed and driven beyond the bridge. A large body were perceived at the same time moving towards my left. Major Aylmer, and afterwards major Daniel, with five companies of light infantry and a six-pounder, were detached against them. The 6th regiment, finding no further opposition in front, had of themselves inclined to their left, to engage the body which was attempting to turn us. The action here was for a short time pretty sharp. The rebels were in great numbers, and armed with both muskets and pikes; they were, however, forced to give way, and drive, though they repeatedly attempted to form behind the ditches. They at last dispersed, flying towards Enniscorthy and Wexford.

Their killed could not be ascertained, as they lay scattered in the fields over a considerable extent, but they seemed to be numerous. I inclose a list of ours. The troops behaved with great spirit; the artillery and Hompesch's cavalry were active, and seemed only to regret that the country did not admit of their rendering more effectual service. Major Daniel is the only officer whose wound is bad; it is through the knee, but not dangerous.

The business, which began between three and four, was not over till near eight. It was then too late to proceed to Taghmon. I took post for the night on the ground where the action had commenced. As the rebels gave way, I was informed of the approach of the 2^d and 29th regiments, under lord Dalhousie. In the morning of the 21st we were proceeding to Taghmon, when I was met by an officer of the North Cork, from

Wexford, with the inclosed letters. I gave, of course, no answer to the proposal made by the inhabitants of Wexford, but I thought it my duty immediately to proceed here, and to take post above the town, by which means I have, perhaps, saved the town itself from fire, as well as the lives of many loyal subjects who were prisoners in the hands of the rebels. The rebels fled upon my approach, over the bridge of Wexford, and towards the barony of Forth. I shall wait here your farther orders. Lord Kingsborough has informed me of different engagements he had entered into with respect to the inhabitants. I have declined entering upon the subject, but have referred his lordship to you or general Lake.

I received your pencilled note during the action of the 20th; it was impossible for me then to detach the troops you asked for: but I hear you have perfectly succeeded at Enniscorthy with those you had. Mr. Roche, who commands the rebels, is encamped, I hear, about five miles off. He has sent to lord Kingsborough to surrender upon terms. Your presence speedily is upon every account extremely necessary.

I am, &c. JOHN MOORE.
Major-general Johnson.

P. S. It is difficult to judge of the numbers of rebels, they appear in such crowds and so little order. Information states those we beat to have been between five and six thousand.

PROPOSALS OF THE REBELS.

June 21, 1798.

That capt. M^oManus shall proceed from Wexford towards Oulart, accompanied by Mr. E. Hay, appointed by the inhabitants of all religious persuasions, to inform

the officer commanding the king's troops, that they are ready to deliver up the town of Wexford without opposition, lay down their arms, and return to their allegiance, provided that their persons and properties are guaranteed by the commanding officer, and that they will use every influence in their power to induce the people of the country at large to return to their allegiance also. These terms we hope capt. M'Manus will be able to procure.

Signed, by order of the inhabitants of the town of Wexford,

MATTHEW KEUCHE.

ANSWER.

Enniscorthy, June 22, 1798.

Lieutenant-general Lake cannot attend to any terms offered by rebels in arms against their sovereign. While they continue so, he must use the force entrusted to him with the utmost energy for their destruction.

To the deluded multitude he promises pardon, on their delivering into his hands their leaders, surrendering their arms, and returning with sincerity to their allegiance. (Signed) G. LAKE.

To the inhabitants of Wexford.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of the Caroline French privateer, pierced for 20 guns, carrying twelve and sixes, most of which were thrown overboard in chase, and 105 men, and the Henry of Liverpool, her prize; also an American ship, which had been taken some days before by his majesty's ship Phoenix, capt. Halsted.

29. This day his majesty went in the usual state to the house of peers, where an entreaty was put to the late session of parliament, by a most gracious speech from the throne; after which the lord chancellor, by his majesty's

command, prorogued the parliament to Wednesday the 8th of August.

Whitehall, June 30, 1798. A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Dublin Castle, June 25.

My Lord,

I have the honour of inclosing to your grace the copy of a letter received this day by lord Castlereagh, from major-general sir Charles Asgill, and a return of the killed, wounded, and missing, by the attack on Vinegar-hill, and the town of Enniscorthy.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His grace the duke of Portland.

Kilkenny, June 24, 1798, 9 o'clock,
P. M.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform you, that, early on the morning of the 23d instant, I received information that the rebels, amounting to several thousands, had escaped from the county of Wexford, and formed a camp at Killymount, and were proceeding to Gore's bridge. I instantly assembled all the force I could collect, and marched towards them. I did not arrive in time to prevent their defeating a detachment at that place, and taking twenty-four men of the Wexford militia prisoners; they marched off rapidly towards Leighlin: the troops from thence, consisting of a small party of the 9th dragoons commanded by lieutenant Higgins, lieutenant colonel Rochfort's, and captain Cornwall's yeomanry, killed sixty of them. Night coming on, I could not pursue them any further. By the position they took up near Shar-kill,

kill, I conceived their intentions were to form a junction with the colliers at Castlecomer. As soon as the troops were able to move, I marched with 900 men to attack them, and was sorry to find they had burned the whole town, and forced the soldiers who were in it to retire before my arrival. Having cleared the town with the guns, I attacked them on all sides: about 400 were killed, the remainder fled. They were commanded by a priest, called Murphy, and their numbers are said to amount to 5000. Our loss was inconsiderable. My force consisted of the Wexford and Wicklow militia, under the command of Lord Loftus, and the hon. colonel Howard. The dragoons were commanded by major Donaldson of the 9th dragoons, and major Barnard of the Romney fencibles, with several yeomanry corps from this county and Carlow, who, as well as the other troops, are entitled to my warmest praise for their bravery and alertness on this and every occasion. I have the honour to be, &c. (Signed) C. ASGILL.

Major-general.

Return of the killed, wounded, and missing, on the 21st of June, in the Attack of Vinegar Hill, and the Town of Enniscorthy.

Lieutenant-general Dundas's corps—major-general Sir James Duff's brigade—89th regiment, 1 rank and file killed.

Needham's brigade—7th dragoon guards, 1 captain wounded.

Wiltford's brigade—9th dragoons, 1 rank and file killed.—Dunavin yeoman cavalry, 1 rank and file wounded. First battalion of light infantry, 1 subaltern killed, 1 serjeant wounded, 2 rank and file killed, 18 ditto wounded, 3 ditto missing. Sligo militia, 1 field officer wounded, 2 rank and file killed,

3 ditto wounded. Suffolk fencibles, 2 rank and file wounded.

Names of officers killed and wounded.—Colonel King of the Sligo corps, wounded. Captain Dunne, of 7th dragoon guards, wounded. Lieutenant S. Sands, of the Longford corps, killed.

Major-general Johnson's corps—Royal British artillery, 1 rank and file wounded. Mid-Lothian, 1 subaltern wounded, 1 rank and file wounded. Hompesch's hussars, 2 rank and file wounded. Fifth battalion, 60th regiment, 1 captain wounded, 1 serjeant missing, 5 rank and file killed, 5 ditto wounded. Fourth battalion, 1 subaltern killed, 1 ditto wounded, 1 serjeant killed, 3 rank and file killed, 22 ditto wounded, 1 ditto missing. Royal Meath regiment, 1 serjeant killed. Roscommon ditto, 1 rank and file wounded, 1 ditto missing. Dublin county ditto, 1 field officer wounded, 2 rank and file killed, 6 ditto wounded.

Names of officers killed and wounded.—Lieut. Baines, of 13th foot, attached to 4th battalion killed. Major Vesey, of Dublin county regiment, wounded. Capt. Schneider, of 5th battalion, 60th regiment, wounded. Lieut. Barker, of the Kildare, attached to the 4th battalion, wounded. Lieut. Hill, of the Mid-Lothian, wounded.

Total, 2 field officers wounded, 2 captains wounded, 2 subalterns killed, 2 ditto wounded, 2 serjeants killed, 1 ditto wounded, 1 ditto missing, 16 rank and file killed, 62 ditto wounded, 5 ditto missing.

G. HAWETT, A. G.

Admiralty Office, June 29, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Sir Thomas Williams, Commander of His Majesty's Ship Eadwion, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated off Wexford, the 22d of June, 1798.

I beg

I beg to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that, when cruising at the entrance of St. George's channel with the squadron under my command, I received information on the 19th, that the king's troops were to commence their attack on the rebels at Wexford, on the 20th or 21st. I immediately proceeded off that harbour with the ships named in the margin*, and five cutters which I had collected. Lieutenant Carpenter, senior lieutenant of the *Endymion*, was immediately dispatched in command of the cutters and ship's launches, manned and armed with carronades in their prows, to blockade the inward part of the entrance of the harbour, and to prevent the escape of the rebel armed vessels, and others, of which they were in possession, to the amount of forty or fifty sail. On the 21st, I was joined by the *Chapman* and *Wexfel* sloops, which, being of light draught of water, anchored much nearer in than the frigates could venture, and thereby gave more effectual protection to the cutters and launches destined to attack the harbour and fort at the entrance of it, which fired on them. On the arrival of captain Keen, of the *Chapman*, I directed him to conduct the operations of the cutters and launches, and endeavour to possess himself of the harbour and fort, the tides being so low, and the wind blowing out, that neither of the sloops could get in. The launches proceeded to attack the fort, of which they soon possessed themselves, upwards of 200 of the rebels precipitately retreating from it, leaving behind them their colours flying, and three six-

pounders. The launches then immediately proceeded up the harbour; and, upon their arrival at the town, had the happiness to find the king's troops were just marching into it, they having entirely defeated the rebels in two separate attacks on the 20th and 21st, and who are now flying in all directions. Two of their generals, Hay and Roche, are taken prisoners. As the object of the squadron remaining at anchor here is now fully accomplished, it is my intention to get to sea to-morrow, if possible; and I am happy to be informed, since the reduction of Wexford, that the appearance of his majesty's ships and vessels off the harbour, and the measures pursued by them, has been attended with the happiest consequences, and greatly contributed to check the further progress of the horrible massacres that have been committed in the town of Wexford, disgraceful to humanity. There being a number of boats and small vessels along the coast, belonging to the rebels, which I conceived would be employed in facilitating the escape of the fugitives, I have ordered the boats of the squadron in, and destroyed about one hundred of them; in some, pikes were found concealed. The public service has greatly benefited by the judicious arrangements of captain Keen and lieutenant Carpenter, and by the zeal and activity manifested by them and the officers and people employed in the different ships, boats, and launches under their command, and otherwise.

JULY.

2. An accident which happened at Macclesfield, this day, is

* *Endymion*, *Phoenix*, *Glenmore*, *Melampus*, *Unicorn*.

thus related by the Rev. Dr. Coke. "This evening I went into the pulpit, the chapel being so full that many could not get in. While the congregation was singing the two last lines of the second hymn, an old woman cried out, "The roof is coming down." One of our friends, knowing there was no manner of danger, in a whisper desired her to hold her tongue; but it was too late. Almost universal cries and shrieks took place. The people immediately rushed out. The court, which is but small, was instantly crowded. None, I think, were hurt in the chapel; but in the court, just on the outside of the door, six women and a boy of four years old were thrown down; and, alas! alas! were trod to death! It was in vain to cry out, "Sit still, for there is no danger." Nobody gave the least attention. I never was so much distressed in my life; it being the most awful event I ever witnessed."

Whitehall, July 3: The following dispatches have been received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Kilkenny, June 26.

My Lord,

Fearing the consequences that might result from allowing the rebels who fled from Wexford to remain any length of time in this county, I preferred attacking them with the troops I already had, to waiting till a reinforcement arrived. My force amounted to 1100 men. The rebels consisted of about 5000 men. I attacked them this morning at six o'clock, in their position at Kilconnel hill, near Gore's-bridge, and soon defeated them. Their chief, called Murphy, a priest, and upwards of 1000 men, were killed; 10 pieces of cannon, 2 swivels, their colours, and quantities of ammunition, arms, cattle,

&c. were taken; and I have the pleasure to add, that some soldiers, who were made prisoners the day before, and doomed to suffer death, were fortunately released by our troops. Our loss consisted of seven men killed and wounded. The remainder of the rebels were pursued into the county of Wexford, where they dispersed in different directions.

C. ASGILL.

Dublin Castle, June 28.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your grace, that this day advices were received from lieut. Gardner of the Antrim militia, dated from Baltinglas, the 26th instant, which state, that, early in the morning of the 25th, a very large body of rebels attacked his post at Hacketstown. They were in number many thousands. Lieut. Gardner's forces consisted of 50 Upper Talbotstown, and 24 Shebagh cavalry, 50 of the Antrim militia, 46 Hacketstown, and 30 Coolatrin yeoman infantry. He at first took an advantageous situation in front of the town; but, after a few shots without effect, the rebels filed off in every direction to surround him. He then retreated into the town to defend the barracks. A contest took place in the midst of the flame for near nine hours, for the rebels set fire to the town. They were at last repulsed with considerable loss; many dead were found in the streets and ditches, and thirty carloads of killed and wounded were carried off in their retreat. Capt. Hardy, of the Hacketstown yeoman infantry, fell early in the action. His other loss consists of 10 privates killed, and 1 serjeant and 19 privates wounded. I inclose to your grace a further account of the action near Gore's-bridge, and a return of killed and wounded,

which

which has been received from major-general sir Charles Apgill.

CORNWALLIS.

My Lord, *Kilkenny, June 27.*

I have the honour to send you inclosed a return of the killed and wounded in the action with the rebels at Kilconnel hill, on the 26th of June, and a return of the ordnance, ammunition, &c. &c. taken on that day. I have the pleasure to assure you that every thing they possessed has fallen into our hands; and, from the subsequent accounts, the loss they sustained was much greater than I had the honour of stating to you in my former dispatch. I have no doubt but this victory will restore the counties of Kilkenny and Carlow to peace and tranquillity.

C. Apgill, major-general.

Return of ordnance, colours, and ammunition taken.

One colours, 5 four-pounders, 5 one-pounders, 4 swivels, a few guns, and a number of pikes, which were destroyed as soon as taken; a number of shot of different sizes, with a quantity of lead and moulds.

Return of stores taken.

Black cattle, 170; sheep, 100; horses, 700;—total, 970. Also a vast quantity of bedding, blanketing, and wearing apparel.

J. LEWIS HIGGINS.

A Return of killed, wounded, and missing, of the Troops engaged at Kilconnel Hill, on the 26th Instant (June 1798), under the Command of Sir Charles Apgill.

Total.—1 lieutenant, 1 corporal, killed; 1 serjeant, and 3 rank and file wounded; 5 horses killed, and 1 missing. Officer killed—Lieutenant Stones, of the Mount Leinster yeoman infantry.

[This gazette also contains an account of the capture of La Julie privateer, of Nantes, mounting 18

twelve and six-pounders, and manned with 120 men, by the Shannon, capt. Frazer;—also, by the schooner Recovery, capt. Ross, La Revanche, pierced for 12 guns, and had 10 guns and 54 men on board. She captured 10 vessels the last cruise, and 19 the preceding one. And, also, the French privateer schooner L'Incredible, 2 long six-pounders, 4 swivels, and 33 men.—By the fleet under the command of vice-admiral Parker, L'Hirondelle, French privateer, of 10 guns; another of 6 guns; and another of 6 guns, pierced for 10, and 40 men; by the Acasta;—also, the St. Mary de Lorraine, of 2 guns, and 25 men, by the Acasta and Ceres;—also, the Dutch lugger, Sea Hound, pierced for 14 guns, but having only 7 mounted, and 4 swivels, manned with 30 men, by the sloop Hound, captain Wood.]

Admiralty Office, July 7.

This gazette contains an account of the capture of La Zenodone, French polacca privateer, mounting 2 sixes, 6 fours, and 2 three-pounders, carrying 61 men, by his majesty's ship Caroline, capt. Luke.

Admiralty Office, July 10.

This gazette contains an account of the capture of a Spanish letter of marque, named the Union, carrying 12 guns, and 32 men, laden with tallow, hides, and herb tea, and estimated at about 10,000*l.* by the Indispensable letter of marque, of 14 guns and 32 men.

6. This night, about nine, a fire broke out at a place called Rat's castle, Diot-street, St. Giles's, in the warehouses of Mr. Gimbert, of Piccadilly, cork-cutter to his majesty. In a short time the whole of those extensive premises were burned to the ground, together with an immense quantity of cork. The whole were insured, and were reckoned

oned the most spacious of the kind in the metropolis. Several other small houses were burnt, but happily no lives were lost.

14. This morning were executed at Spithead two mutineers, Timmings and Cormick, convicted of having endeavoured to seize his majesty's gun-vessel Haughty, and deliver her up to the enemy.

21. Brian was executed at Portsmouth, for mutiny on board the Pluto.

From the London Gazette, July 14, 1798.

Admiralty Office, July 14.

Extract of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Vandeput, Commander in Chief of His Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Halifax, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Asia, Halifax Harbour, June 23, 1798.

On the 15th of April, I put to sea with the squadron, and proceeded to the S. E. as far as latitude 29 deg. 30 min. and longitude 76 deg.; on the 22d we fell in with La Amiable Juana, a Spanish privateer of 6 guns and 46 men, which was captured by the Hind, and was sent to Halifax. On the 27th we fell in with, and, after a chase of fifteen hours, the Resolution captured, a schooner French privateer from Curaçoa, of 4 guns, and 35 men; this privateer had some time before taken an American vessel belonging to Baltimore. On the 15th of May, with the Topaze and Hind in company, having gotten intelligence that three privateers were cruising off Charleston, I ordered captain Larcom to go in search of them, and then, with the Topaze, I proceeded to-

wards this port, where we arrived on the 28th ultimo. On the 7th instant, arrived a French schooner privateer, called the Revenge, of 14 guns, and 84 men, a prize to the Thetis, who took her in latitude 38, longitude 72; she had not taken any thing. On the day following came in the Thetis and Rover, the former from a cruise, in which she had taken a French privateer of 6 guns, which was sent to New Providence. The Rover, on her passage towards Bermuda, on the 17th of May, captured and sent in a French sloop, privateer of 14 guns with 57 men; she was last from Porto Rico, and had taken three American ships, as per margin.*

Admiralty Office, July 14.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Royal George, at sea, July 11, 1798.

The inclosed copies of letters will inform their lordships of the taking of La Seine, and the loss of his majesty's ship La Pique. On both these events I can add nothing more than to express my satisfaction on this important capture, and real concern for the accidents that have attended it. Captain Milne, with all his officers and people, are on board La Seine.

I am, &c.

BRIDPORT.

Jasen, Portuis Breton, July 2, 1798.

My Lord,

On Friday last, at seven A. M. his majesty's squadron under my command, consisting of the ships named in the margin†, gave chase to a French frigate off the Saintes:

* Ship Thomas, from Liverpool to Philadelphia. Ship Merchant, from New York to Bristol. Ship Diana, from New York to Demerara.

† Jason, Pique, and Minerva.

at 11 at night, the Pique brought her to action, and continued a running fight, till the Jafon passed between the two. At this instant the land near the point de la Trenche was seen close on our larboard bow, and before the ship could answer her helm, she took the ground close to the enemy, which, we immediately perceived, had grounded also: most unfortunately, as the tide rose, we hung only forwards, and therefore swung with our stern close to the enemy's broadside, who, although he was dismasted, did not fail to take advantage of his happy position; but a well-directed fire was kept up from a few guns abaft, and at half past two she struck. Our opponent, called *La Seine*, was commanded by le capitaine Brejot, her force 42 guns, eighteen and nine-pounders with carronades, and 610 men, including troops; she sailed from L'Isle de France three months ago, bound to L'Orient.

In the early part of the battle, I had the mortification to be wounded, and was obliged to leave the deck; but my misfortune is palliated by the reflection that the service did not suffer by my absence: for no man could have filled my place with more credit to himself, and benefit to the state, than my first lieutenant, Mr. Charles Inglis, whom I beg to recommend in the strongest manner for his bravery, skill, and great exertions.

I come now, my lord, to the painful part of my narrative, which I am necessitated to make more prolix than I otherwise should, from the peculiar circumstances attending the engagement; and first I mention the loss of the Pique, whose officers and crew deserved a better fate. Captain Milne had led her to the fight in an officer-like

manner, but it was his misfortune, that, the main-topmast being carried away, he was obliged to drop astern: ardour urging him on to renew the combat, he did not hear me hail him to anchor, and the ship therefore grounded on our off-side, near enough to receive the enemy's shot over us, although very awkwardly situated for returning the fire. In the morning every attempt was made to get the ships off, but the Jafon was alone successful: I therefore, on finding the Pique was bilged, directed the captain to destroy her, and to exert his abilities and activity to save the prize; which he, with great difficulty, got afloat yesterday evening, after throwing her guns, &c. overboard.

The carnage on board *La Seine* was very great; 170 men were killed, and about 100 wounded, many of them mortally. I inclose a list of the sufferers on board the Jafon; and it is with great concern that among the killed I place the name of Mr. Anthony Richard Robotier, my second lieutenant, who died fighting gloriously, and by whose fall is lost a most amiable man and excellent officer. Lieut. Riboleau commanded on the main deck afterwards, and behaved with great spirit; as did Mr. Lockwood, the master, and lieutenant Symes, of the marines; my other officers of every description behaved vastly well; and the bravery and excellent conduct of the crew deserve much praise.

The Pique was exceedingly shattered in her rigging, and the Jafon has not one mast or yard but what is much damaged, nor a shroud or rope but what is cut, with all the sails torn to pieces. If our ship could have remained in her first position, or our companion could have

have occupied the situation he wished, the business must have been sooner finished, without so much injury being done aloft.

It is but justice to observe that every effort was made on board the *Mermaid*, during our long chase, to approach the enemy; and I feel much indebted to captain Newman for heaving the ship off, as that was the only possible means to save her. So soon as we were afloat, the squadron under captain Stopford was seen in the offing, and being called in by signal, was of infinite service. I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES STIRLING.

A List of killed and wounded on board His Majesty's Ship *Jason*, in the Action with *La Seine*.

Lieut. Robotier, killed; 1 corporal of marines, killed; 5 seamen, killed; captain Stirling, wounded; Messrs. Bedford and Luscombe, wounded; 9 seamen, wounded; total killed, 7; wounded, 12.

(Signed) CHARLES STIRLING.

On board La Seine, late French Frigate, July 3, 1798.

My Lord,

It is with real concern I have to inform your lordship of the loss of his majesty's ship *Pique*, under my command, on the night of the 30th ult. in action with the French frigate *La Seine*, by running on shore in the passage Breton, where, at low water, she was entirely bulged. For the transactions of that day, I leave your lordship to captain Stirling's dispatches; but must take the liberty of mentioning the entire satisfaction I had from the steady and cool behaviour of the officers and men I had the honour to command; particularly Mr. Lee, first lieutenant; Mr. Devonshire, second; and Mr. Watson, acting third; and lieutenant McDonald of the marines; as likewise Mr. Edween,

the gunner, whose conduct in his department deserves my warmest praise.

It is some small satisfaction to me, my lord, for the loss of his majesty's ship, that the prize was got off by the assistance given from the *St. Fiorenzo*; and her being a very strong and nearly new ship, she does not appear to have received any material damage in her hull, except from shot, as she makes very little water.

I have the honour to inclose a list of killed and wounded of his majesty's ship *Pique*.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DAVID MILNE.

Rt. Hon. Lord Bridport, K. B. &c.
Return of killed and wounded on board His Majesty's Ship *La Pique*, in the Action with the French Frigate *La Seine*, on the 30th of June, 1798.

James Collins, sail-maker, killed; Mr. Robinson, boatswain, wounded; Thomas Andrews, boatswain's mate, wounded; Benjamin Lockwood, seaman, wounded; William Richards, seaman, missing; Benjamin Massland, Robert Sallars, and Joseph Furlman, marines, wounded.

17. At a court of common-council, Mr. Powell moved, "that it be referred to the committee of city lands, to consider the necessity and expediency of abolishing Bartholomew fair;" which was seconded by Mr. Stokes. This motion Mr. Goodbehere opposed. It was not in the power of the court to put a stop to the fair, it being held under the charters of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. A court-leet, and a court of *pied poudre*, were held from the opening of the fair to the setting of the sun. The lands which were held by the city of London in free soccage by the charters,

charters, included Smithfield market, several of the houses, and a street in joint tenancy with the earl of Leicester. Many of the householders were capable of discharging their rents and taxes by the fair. In this way it had been maintained quietly for a number of years. No misfortune of any consequence had happened, not so much as a broken head. The rising generation were amused half a day only once in a year; surely that was not too much: almost every parish in the kingdom has its revels, its amusements; and sometimes blood has been spilt. All nations, ancient and modern, had allowed sport and festivity, to prevent greater and more serious evils. Mr. Goodbehere, therefore, was decidedly against the motion. It was then proposed to shorten the period to one day; upon which Mr. Hogsfon and Mr. Waithman objected on the ground that the immense crowd of people from all parts of the metropolis would render such a scheme dangerous, and be the means of losing a great number of lives. After some debate, it was referred to a committee.

17. Two causes of libel were tried before lord Kenyon, in the court of king's-bench, both founded on the sale of Mr. Wakefield's pamphlet in answer to bishop of Landaff's address. The first plaintiff, Mr. Jordan, threw himself upon the mercy of the court; stating that he bought the pamphlet of the publisher, Mr. Cuthell, and suppressed it as soon as he knew it to be exceptionable. The other plaintiff, Mr. Johnson, tried the issue, and was convicted; the tract in question being declared by lord Kenyon and the jury to be a libel.

19. About seven o'clock this morning a fire broke out on

board the Walmer Castle East Indiaman, a new ship, lately launched at the lower water-gate, Deptford, occasioned by some loose powder taking fire in the gun-room. The explosion did not do much damage to the ship. Three floating engines were sent down from London bridge to assist on the occasion. Two men on board the ship were so shockingly burnt, that they were sent to the London hospital, with little hopes of recovery.

From the London Gazette, July 21, 1798.

Parliament-street, July 21.

The dispatches, of which the following are copies, were received on the 17th instant, by the right honourable Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, from major-generals Coote and Burrard; no opportunity to transmit them having occurred until the return of Mr. Jobernes, by whom they were forwarded.

Ostend, June 23, 1798.

SIR,

Not having had it in my power to send my dispatches by my aide-de-camp, captain Williamson, I take the opportunity by Mr. Jobernes, the staff surgeon, who was ordered to Ostend by his royal highness the commander in chief.

I have the honour to be, &c.

EYRE COOTE, maj.-general.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

On a Ridge of Sand-Hills, three Miles to the East of Ostend, May 19, 1798.

SIR,

I have the most sincere satisfaction to acquaint you of the complete and brilliant success attending the expedition entrusted by his majesty to the care of captain Popham, of the royal navy, and myself. The squadron reached Ostend about one o'clock this morning.

The

The able and judicious arrangements of captain Popham, and great exertions of himself, the officers and seamen under his command, enabled us to disembark the troops at the place from which I have the honour of dating this dispatch; and from captain Popham's local knowledge, I gained such information as very much removed the difficulties we had to encounter on shore, and contributed greatly to the success of the enterprise.

General sir Charles Grey sent you, sir, an outline of the disposition of the troops, and of the plans, previous to our sailing from Margate; these were carried into execution, with a little alteration, which I was obliged to make, in consequence of the whole of the troops not having landed.

Soon after we disembarked, I detached major-general Burrard, with four companies of light infantry of the guards, the 23d and 49th grenadiers, and two six-pounders, to take possession of the different posts and passes that it was necessary to occupy to enable us to carry our plans into execution. In effecting this he met with strong opposition from a considerable body of sharpshooters, who were gallantly repulsed with some loss, and by a rapid march cut off from the town of Ostend.

During the time lieutenant Brownrigg, of the engineers, was employed in bringing up the powder and other materials to effect the destruction of the sluices of the Bruges canal, the troops were posted as follows: the grenadiers of the 11th and 23d regiments with cannon, &c. at the lower ferry, to prevent the enemy crossing from Ostend. A detachment of colonel Campbell's company of the guards, under the command of captain Duff, and the gre-

nadiers of the 49th regiment, under the command of captain lord Aylmer, at the upper ferry for the same purpose. The remainder of colonel Campbell's, with three other companies of the guards, under the command of colonel Calcraft, at the sluices and country around, to cover the operation.

The 11th regiment on the south-east front, to secure a safe retreat for the troops, if pressed.

The light infantry companies of the 11th and 23d regiments, under major Donkin, to cover the village of Bredin, and extend to the Blankenburg road near the sea, as well as to co-operate with the 11th regiment.

The greater part of the 23d regiment remained on board the ships of war, stationed to the westward of the town, as well to divert the enemy's attention to that point, as to land and spike the cannon, should an opportunity offer.

By the time the troops were properly posted, the necessary materials were brought up to the sluices by the indefatigable exertions and extraordinary good conduct of captains Winthrop, Bradby, and McKellar, and lieutenant Bradby, of the royal navy, whose services on shore cannot be too highly praised.

Lieutenant Brownrigg, of the royal engineers, in about four hours made all his arrangements, and completely destroyed the sluices; his mine having in every particular the desired effect; and the object of the expedition thereby attained; and which, I have the satisfaction to add, was accomplished with the trifling loss of only five men killed and wounded. Several vessels of considerable burden were also destroyed in the canal near the sluices.

No danger even for an instant abated the ardour of the seamen and soldiers.—To their unanimity his majesty and the country are indebted for our successes.

No language of mine can do justice to the forces employed upon this occasion; and, as it is impossible to name each individual, I beg leave to state the great exertions of a few.

To that excellent officer, major-general Burrard, I shall feel everlasting obligation: to his counsel, exertions, and ability, I am in a great measure to attribute the successes of the enterprise.

His majesty's guards, conspicuous upon all occasions, on this service have added to their former laurels. To colonel Calcraft, who commanded them; colonels Cunningham and Campbell, of the same corps; major Skinner, of the 23d regiment, commanding the grenadiers; major Donkin, of the 44th regiment, commanding the light infantry; and captain Walker, commanding the royal artillery; I feel myself much indebted for their good conduct in the various services in which I employed them.

In lieutenant Brownrigg, of the royal engineers, I found infinite ability and resource. His zeal and attention were eminently conspicuous; and in my opinion this gentleman bids fair to be of great future service to his country.

I should not do justice to the zeal and spirit of lieutenant Gilham, of the Sussex militia, if I did not state to you, that, anxious to be employed in the service of his country, and to learn his profession, he applied to his commanding officer at Dover, the night before we sailed, for permission to join our force. He left Dover in a violent gale of wind, and came on board the morn-

ing we got under weigh. I attached him to colonel Campbell's company of the battalion of guards, where he acquitted himself much to his honour.

Captain Visscher, sir Charles Grey's aide-de-camp, captain Williamson, my aide-de-camp, and major of brigade Thorley, I sent to attend the guards, light infantry, and grenadiers in their different positions, as well to give their assistance to the respective commanding officers, as to apprise me of any circumstance that might occur, so as to require my immediate information, they being thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the expedition. They conducted themselves to my most perfect satisfaction, as did lieutenant Cliften, of the royal artillery, who attended me, capt. Cumberland of the 83d regiment, and cornet Nixon of the 7th light dragoons, who acted as aide-de-camp to major-general Burrard.

In my letter of the 13th instant, I had the honour to inform you of my having accepted the services of Mr. Jarvis, a surgeon of Margate.—His great attention was unremitting, and his conduct upon this occasion is highly praise-worthy.

To colonel Twiss I shall ever feel great obligation for the able assistance he gave me at Dover, in preparing the necessary instruments for destroying the sluice-gates, as well as for the instruction he was so kind to give lieutenant Brownrigg for this service.

As a feint to cover the operation of bringing up the materials, and of destroying the sluices, capt. Popham and myself sent a summons to the commandant of Ostend to surrender the town and its dependencies to his majesty's forces under our command; which had the desired

fired effect. I have the honour to inclose you a copy of the summons, with the commandant's answer.

By an unavoidable accident, the four light companies of the 1st guards, under the command of lieut.-colonels Warde and Boone, were not landed in the morning; I think it however but justice to declare, that every thing that brave men then could attempt was done at the imminent risk of their lives to accomplish it; and I am conscious the zeal and courage they manifested to partake in the dangers of their brother soldiers, would have made them ample sharers in any honour to be acquired, or danger to be encountered, on shore, had they been able to reach it.

I have sent a dispatch to sir Charles Grey by his aide-de-camp, captain Vischer; and captain Williamson, my aide-de-camp, will have the honour to deliver you this. Both these gentlemen are well qualified to give you any farther information; and I beg leave to recommend them to your notice and protection.

I have the honour to be, &c.

EYRE COOTE, maj.-gen.

Right hon. Henry Dundas,

&c. &c. &c.

Copy of the Summons sent for the Town of Ostend, &c. to surrender. Dated East of the Harbour of Ostend, May 19, 1798.

SIR,

We, the officers commanding the sea and land forces of his majesty the king of Great Britain, think it necessary to apprise you, that we shall be obliged to bombard and cannonade the town of Ostend, unless you, as commandant, shall immediately surrender the same, with its dependencies, troops, and military stores belonging to the republic, to the arms of our sovereign.

We leave to you to take into your serious consideration the very formidable force now lying before the town and port of Ostend, as you cannot but be responsible for the consequences of a vain and fruitless resistance.

We are willing to grant half an hour for your full consideration of the above terms, and are convinced that your humanity and good sense will point out the necessary steps to be taken to accede to our proposals, as, in default thereof, we shall be under the necessity of immediately commencing hostilities.

We have the honour to be, &c.

EYRE COOTE, maj.-general.

HOME POPHAM, capt. R. N.

To his excellency the commandant of Ostend.

Translation of the Commandant of Ostend's Answer to the Summons.

Liberty.

Equality.

*Garrison of Ostend, 30th Floreal,
6th Year of the Republic.*

Muscar, Commandant of the Garrison of Ostend, to the Commander in Chief of the Troops of his Britannic Majesty.

General,

The council of war was sitting when I received the honour of your letter; we have unanimously resolved not to surrender this place until we shall have been buried under its ruins.

(Signed)

MUSCAR,

Commandant of the garrison.

Ostend, May 20, 1798.

SIR,

Major-general Coote, in his dispatch yesterday, had the honour to inform you of the brilliant success of the enterprise of which he had the command, as far as related to the destruction of the gates and sluices of the canal of Bruges.

The general having been severely wounded this morning, I have the

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painful

painful task of detailing our unavoidable surrender soon after.

On our return yesterday to the beach at eleven o'clock A. M. where we had disembarked, we found, that, from an increase of wind and surf, our communication with the fleet was nearly cut off, and that it was impossible to re-imbark the troops. The general, well aware of the risk we ran in staying in an enemy's country, naturally exasperated against us for the damage we had recently done them, attempted to get off some companies: but the boats soon filled with water, and it was with extreme difficulty the lives of the men were saved. It then became necessary to examine carefully the ground we were likely to fight upon; and such a choice was made as might have insured us success, had any thing like an equal force presented itself.

Major-general Coote took every precaution the evening and the night afforded, to make our post among the sand hills upon the shore as tenable as possible, by directing lieutenant Brownrigg, of the royal engineers, to make small entrenchments where it was necessary, and, by planting the few field-pieces and the howitzer we had on the most favourable spots, to annoy the enemy in their approach to attack us.

In momentary expectation of them, we impatiently looked for a favourable opportunity to get into our boats; but unfortunately it never presented itself.

About four o'clock this morning, (the wind and surf being increased during the night) we perceived plainly two strong columns of the enemy advancing on our front; and soon after we found se-

veral other columns upon our flanks.

The action began by a cannonade from their horse-artillery, which was answered from our field-pieces and howitzer with great animation. Our artillery was served admirably; and, had not the enemy soon after turned our flanks, which, from their very great numbers, could not be prevented, they would have paid dear indeed for any advantage their superiority of numbers gave them. The force they employed, we have since found, was assembled from Ghent, Breges, and Dunkirk; and general Coote and myself were very soon convinced that our case was desperate, and that we had no choice left but to defend our post, such as it was, for the honour of his majesty's arms, as long as we were able. We maintained this very severe and unequal conflict for nearly two hours, in which extreme hot fire was interchanged, particularly on our left flank, which, as well as our right, was now completely turned. Wishing, however, to make one strong effort, major-general Coote ordered major Donkin, of the 44th regiment, on the left, with a company of light infantry, to endeavour to turn that flank of the enemy which had most impression upon us, and colonel Campbell, with his own light company of the guards, to effect the same purpose by a concealed and rapid march round the Sand Hills. The uncommon exertions of these two invaluable officers, when the signal was made for them to advance, are above all praise; their companies in the attempt were much cut down, and col. Campbell and major Donkin, with one subaltern (captain Duff), were wounded.—About this time major-general

general Coote perceived that part of the 11th regiment, towards our left, had given way, and was likely to distress the other parts of the front nearest to it. At the moment he was endeavouring to rally them, and had put himself at their head to regain the lost and advantageous ground from which they had retreated, at that most critical period, when most conspicuous for gallantry and conduct, he received a very severe wound in his thigh; and being unable to go on, he sent for me from the right, where I was stationed.

We both found that our front was broken, and our flanks completely turned, the enemy pouring in upon us on all sides, and several valuable officers and many of our best men killed and wounded. It was evident we could not hold out for ten minutes longer; and therefore we thought it more our duty to preserve the lives of the brave men we commanded, than to sacrifice them to what, we conceived, was a mistaken point of honour. Had we acted differently, it is probable that in less time than what I have just mentioned, their fate would have been decided by the bayonet.

Major-general Coote, by whose bed I am writing, has enjoined me to repeat the praises (and I am witness he has justly bestowed them) on the officers and men which he had the honour to mention in his dispatch of yesterday. And we hope, that, although we have not been finally successful in re-embarking, our conduct and exertions, in having effected the object of the enterprise, will be deemed honourable by his majesty and our country; and we rely upon his gracious acceptance of our endeavours and zeal in the attempt to extricate the troops

entrusted to our charge from difficulties both unavoidable and insurmountable.

Major-general Coote and myself would willingly bestow praise where it is due; but, among many competitors, it is difficult to select without appearing to overlook others well deserving. We have, sir, however, the honour of mentioning to you colonel Campbell, of the third guards light infantry, and major Donkin, of the 44th, whose conduct, if any thing could have protracted our fate, had been equal to the difficulty of effecting it. Capt. Walker commanding the royal artillery, captains Wilson and Godfrey, and lieutenants Simpson, Hughes, and Holcroft, all of the same distinguished corps, after having done every thing which men could do, spiked their guns, and threw them over the banks, at the moment the enemy were possessing themselves of them. The latter gentleman, lieut. Holcroft, when all his men were wounded except one, remained at his gun doing duty with it to the best of his ability. Captain Gibbs of the 11th, and captain Halkett of the 23d light infantry, eminently distinguished themselves by their cool intrepid conduct during the whole time.

All the gentlemen of the staff conducted themselves much to the satisfaction of major-general Coote and myself.

To captain Cumberland of the 83d, and cornet Nixon of the 7th light dragoons, who flatteringly offered to accompany me, and who acted as my aide-de-camp, I am much indebted; their attention and activity I found of most material service.

Mr. Lowen, volunteer, attached to the 23d light infantry, was

twice wounded, and was particularly conspicuous, and remarked as a most promising foldier. We think it but justice to the enemy to say, that our wounded are treated with humanity: many of them are in the hospital of this town, and are well attended by their surgeons.

Our numbers on shore were about 1000 men, of which we are afraid there are from 100 to 150 killed and wounded. The enemy, by all accounts, have lost about the same number; but it is impossible to give any just return of the number we have lost till we hear from Bruges, where the prisoners were sent.

I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

(Signed) HARRY BURKARD,

Major-general.

The Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c. &c. &c.

P. S. A return of the killed and wounded is now more regularly transmitted by major-general Coote.

(Signed) EYRE COOTE, M. G.

Ostend, June 17, 1798.

Return of Officers, non-commissioned Officers, Rank and File, and Seamen, killed, wounded, and missing, on the Sand Hills near Ostend, 20th May, 1798.

Royal Artillery.—6 rank and file killed; 1 captain, 5 rank and file wounded; 20 rank and file missing.

Royal Engineers.—2 rank and file killed; 5 rank and file wounded.

17th light dragoons.—1 rank and file wounded.

1st gds.—1 rank and file wounded.

2d guards.—4 rank and file killed; 2 drummers missing.

3d guards.—6 rank and file killed; 1 colonel, 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 1 serjeant, 7 rank and file wounded; 25 rank and file missing.

11th regiment of foot.—1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 serjeant, 9 rank

and file killed; 2 serjeants, 28 rank and file wounded.

23d regiment of foot.—4 rank and file killed; 11 rank and file wounded.

44th regiment of foot.—1 major wounded.

49th regiment of foot.—1 rank and file wounded.

Royal navy.—11 seamen killed; 3 seamen wounded.

Total.—1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 serjeant, 31 rank and file, 11 seamen killed; 1 colonel, 1 major, 2 captains, 1 lieutenant, 3 serjeants, 59 rank and file, 3 seamen wounded; 2 drummers, 45 rank and file, missing.

Names and Rank of Officers killed and wounded.

Major-general Coote, badly wounded.

Colonel Campbell, 3d guards, badly wounded (since dead).

Colonel Hely, 11th regiment of foot, killed.

Major Donkin, commanding battalion of light infantry, wounded slightly.

Captain Walker, commanding royal artillery, wounded (since dead).

Captain Duff, 3d guards, slightly wounded.

Volunteer Lowen, attached to the 23d light infantry, wounded severely.

Royal Navy.

Mr. Wisdom, Mr. Belding, master's-mates of his Majesty's ship *Circe*, killed.

From the best Accounts,

M. THORLET, Major of Brigade.
Ostend, June 10, 1798.

Return of Officers, non-commissioned, and Rank and File, under the Command of Major-General Coote, surrendered Prisoners of War on the Sand Hills, near Ostend, 20th May, 1798.

Liste.—Royal artillery.—2 captains, 5 lieu-

5 lieutenants, 8 serjeants, 2 drummers, 60 rank and file.

Lisle and Ostend.—Royal engineers.—1 second lieutenant.

Lisle.—17th light dragoons.—1 serjeant, 8 rank and file.

Ditto.—Four companies of guards.

—2 captains, 5 lieutenants, 1 quarter-master, 1 surgeon, 16 serjeants, 9 drummers, 260 rank and file.

Douay, Fort L'Esclapart.—11th regiment of foot.—1 major, 6 captains, 11 lieutenants, 4 ensigns, 1 adjutant, 1 surgeon, 40 serjeants, 16 drummers, 400 rank and file.

Lisle.—23d regiment grenadiers and light infantry.—1 lieutenant colonel, 1 major, 3 captains, 6 lieutenants, 8 serjeants, 4 drummers, 160 rank and file.

Ditto.—44th regiment.—1 major.

Ditto.—49th grenadiers.—1 captain, 3 lieutenants, 1 surgeon, 4 serjeants, 2 drummers, 78 rank and file.

Total.—1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 major, 14 captains, 30 lieutenants, 1 second lieutenant, 4 ensigns, 1 adjutant, 1 quarter-master, 3 surgeons, 77 serjeants, 33 drummers, 960 rank and file.

Royal Artillery.

Captains, Wilson and Godfrey.

Lieutenants, Simpson, Clifton, Hughes, Holcroft, and Hilbert.

Second Lieutenant, Brownrigg, royal engineers.

Four Companies of Guards.

Colonels, Calcraft and Cunningham.

Captains and Lieutenants, Wheatley, acting adjutant; Armstrong, Bean, Duff, and Stephens.

Surgeon, Fullelove.

11th Regiment.

Major Armstrong.

Captains, Sizer, Martin, and Evans; Aylmer, captain lieutenant.

Lieutenants, Blair, adjutant; Col-

lyer, M'Lean, Newman, Ogilvie, and Armstrong.

Ensigns, Simpson, Miller, Cromie, and M'Kenzie.

11th Flank Companies.

Captains, Knight, grenadiers; Gibbs, light infantry.

Lieutenants, Hely, Grant, and Campbell, grenadiers; Fenwick, Maxwell, and Elton, light infantry.

Surgeon, Parlet.

23d Regiment.

Lieutenant-colonel Talbot.

Major Skinner.

Captains, Bradford and Bury, grenadiers; Halket, light infantry.

Lieutenants, Hanson, Visscher, and Lloyd, grenadiers; Cotton, Cortland, and Roberts, light infantry.

44th Regiment.

Major Donkin.

49th Regiment.

Captain Lord Aylmer, grenadiers.

Lieutenants, Martin, Purson, and Williams, ditto.

Surgeon, Cobb.

General Officers and Staff.

Major-General Coote.

Aides-de-camp, Capt. Williams, Captain Visscher, and Lieutenant Gillham.

Captain Thorley, Major of Brigade.

Major-General Burrard.

Aides-de-camp, Captain Cumberland and Cornet Nixon.

From the best Accounts,

M. THORLEY, Major of Brigade.

Ostend, May 27, 1798.

SIR,

It is with inexpressible concern that I am to acquaint you, that colonel Campbell, of the 3d guards, died this morning of the wound he received in the action of the 20th instant. The loss of this invaluable officer to the service is irreparable, and by his country ever to be lamented.

Major-general Burrard, with all

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the officers (3 or 4 excepted that were left with me) and soldiers, are removed to Lisle, where I expect to be sent as soon as I am sufficiently recovered of my wounds.

I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

EYRE COOTE, M. G.

To the Right Hon. Henry

Dundas, &c. &c. &c.

Whitehall, July 21, 1798.

A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received from the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Drogheda, July 15, 1798.

SIR,

Having received information from different quarters on Friday afternoon, that a large body of rebels had assembled about Garristown, and were marching towards this, I went out with what force I thought it prudent to take from the garrison here to Duleek, where I arrived at ten o'clock at night the 13th, and got information that the rebels were strongly posted upon a hill three miles off to the right. Not knowing the country, I remained in Duleek till one o'clock. When I marched to the hill, I found the rebels left it on our coming into Duleek the evening before, and halted at a village near it. I followed them to the village. They had left it about five hours before towards Slane. I thought it probable, from a note I had received from General Meyrick, that he was to march from Tarah hill to attack the rebels at Garristown, that I should hear of him at the Black Lion, and went on about half a mile, when I saw general Meyrick's division coming into the Black Lion. We immediately proceeded by two roads to-

wards Slane, as we were informed they were posted above lord Boyne's house. When we came there they had left it about three hours, and had passed the Boyne above Slane. Finding that we did not come up with them, general Meyrick sent on lieutenant-colonel Ord, with the Durham cavalry, to overtake them, and keep them in check, which he did about 4 or 5 miles from us on the north side of the Boyne road to Ardee, and sent back for a reinforcement of cavalry. I ordered colonel Maxwell, with the Dumfries, with general Meyrick, to move on; and they found the rebels very strongly posted behind a defile between two bogs, the pass only allowing them to pass by fours. The cavalry drove in their advanced post, and charged with great spirit; but, from the position of the enemy, colonel Maxwell thought it better to wait till the infantry came up; which I did with the Sutherland highlanders in a very short time, and advanced with my battalion guns. Whenever the rebels perceived us, I saw them get into confusion, and they immediately broke in all directions. I then ordered the cavalry and yeomanry to attack, and I followed with the infantry to support them. The rebels got into the bogs, and the cavalry advanced, killed all they met with, and surrounded the bog to the height on the opposite side. The highlanders got into the bog, and killed all that were in it. Those who got out on the opposite side were met by the cavalry. From the manner in which they dispersed, I cannot give an exact account of the killed. We took a great quantity of pikes, pistols, swords, muskets, &c. and two standards. General Meyrick got one prisoner, who gave him some information, and promised him

him more. He took him with him to Navan, so that I cannot report any thing with accuracy about him.

The troops behaved with great spirit, and bore a great deal of fatigue, particularly general Meyrick's division, with a re-inforcement from this of the Dumfries; and my light company has been out three nights. I am particularly indebted to the gentlemen yeomanry, and to Mr. Trettu Duheln, who served me as a guide. A body of the rebels left went on towards Ardee. A great many got round the hill on our right, and came back to Slane, where they assembled near it, crossed the Boyne, and went back towards Garristown, where I hope general Myers will fall in with them. I reported this to general Campbell last night, being under his command, and just now received a note from him to inform you of it.

(Signed) W. WEMYSS, M. G.

Admiralty-office, July 24.

Extract of a Letter from the Earl of St. Vincent, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Ville de Paris, July 3, 1798.

I inclose, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, the report captain Digby, of his majesty's ship the Aurora, has made of his last cruise. The active services of this young man cannot be too highly commended.

"June 16, I gained my station, and sent lieutenant Lloyd during a fog to reconnoitre, with two boats armed, a vessel that had been seen; reporting, on his return, having followed her into Curmes, where two Spanish vessels were at anchor, I stood into the bay to cover them in the boats taking or destroying them, which he effected by burning a brigantine loaded with hemp

and iron, scuttling a schooner with various merchandize, and brought the boats off with three men wounded, two of them slightly, by the musquetry from the town, and a wall-piece from an adjacent mount. Standing on the 19th for Cape Prior in thick hazy weather, a ship with five merchant brigs were seen steering along the land to the eastward, the wind westerly. By 2 P. M. I could distinctly see the ship was an enemy, carrying 18 or 20 guns, making with the brigs for the harbour of Cedeira, which he entered about 4; every preparation was made, if possible, to destroy them in that port, which I stood in for; at half past 4 opened a fort on the N. E. side of the town, which, with the ship under French colours, commenced a fire on the Aurora, which was returned, in hopes still of driving all the vessels on shore; but soon losing the wind, and being nearly land-locked, I was obliged to avail myself of the way the ship had not yet lost, to tack and stand out, leaving with certainty only two brigs on shore, the corvette, or privateer ship at the extremity of the harbour, which the charts describe as shoal; the fort damaged, and silent probably from the bursting of a gun, which a seaman aloft on the look-out supposes to have happened. About six the Aurora, by sweeps and towing, was out of the harbour without damage. Chasing a cutter on the 20th, and a lugger on the 21st, belonging to Guernsey, carried me far into the bay. On the 22d I chased a ship off Cape Machichicao, scudding with a N. W. wind, in a direction between me and the land. It soon proved to be a corvette, or large French privateer ship, carrying to appearance 20 guns; for, on distinguishing the frigate,

frigate, she hauled in for the land, and anchored in an opening under a fort between three and four P. M. At four I brought the ship to the wind within half a gun-shot of the enemy, her colours flying, on a lee-shore, with three anchors ahead. After giving her three or four broadsides, her cables and masts shot away, she went on shore, the sea making a fair passage over her; on which I made sail to clear the eastern land, carrying out from 13 to 19 fathoms water, the fort firing without effect. By the report of a Spanish fishing-boat, on the 24th, off Bilboa, I understand the place where she was lost to be Baquio, or near it; their account of her loss of men killed and wounded appears exaggerated; her name they did not know, but I believe she last sailed from St. Andero, where she had lately carried in a valuable English vessel. The wind being easterly, I sent this evening lieut. Lloyd to examine, and, if necessary, destroy, a coasting vessel in an inlet called Finis. He returned in an hour, having scuttled and set fire to her, loaded with wrought iron, bringing two Spaniards on board.

H. DICKY."

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of L'Avantiviera Ferrolina, Spanish lugger privateer, mounting 1 carriage-gun and 4 swivels, and manned with 26 men, by the King's-fisher, capt. Pierrepoint.

Admiralty Office, July 26.

Copy of a Letter transmitted by Admiral Lord St. Vincent to Evan Nepean, Esq.

Sea-Horse, June 27.

My Lord,

After a chase of 12 hours, and a close action of 8 minutes, his majesty's ship under my command, this morning at four o'clock, cap-

tured the *Sensible*, a French 36 gun frigate; 12-pounders, and 300 men, commanded by monsieur Bourde, capitaine de vaisseau; was new coppered, copper-fastened, and had a thorough repair at Toulon two months ago. A general of division, Baraguey de Hilliers, with his suite, was on board, going to Toulon with an account of the capture of Malta. The Sea-horse's officers and men conducted themselves much to my satisfaction, and I received that assistance from Mr. Wilmott, the first lieutenant, which I might naturally expect from an officer who had been in nine actions, and received eight wounds. Two master's-mates and nine men belonging to the *Culloden* evinced the same steady courage as the crew of that ship have done on every occasion.

The inclosed is a list of the killed and wounded.

E. J. FOOTE.

Sea-horse—1 seaman, 1 drummer, killed. Mr. Willmot, first lieutenant, slightly, 13 seamen, 1 corporal of marines, 1 private marine wounded.

Sensible—18 killed, monsieur Bourde, capitaine et capitaine de vaisseau, second capitaine, 35 men, wounded.

Admiralty Office, July 31. This gazette contains an account of the capture of the following vessels by the Squadron under the command of rear-admiral Harvey: by the *Matilda*, capt. Mitford, L'Anibal brig, of 14 guns and 97 men;—by the *Lapwing*, capt. Harvey, L'Intrepide sloop, of 10 guns and 58 men;—by the *Charlotte* armed sloop, commanded by lieut. John Williams, La Mort schooner, of 4 guns and 36 men.

31. The exemplary conduct of the French bishops in this country

has

has induced his majesty to order that they shall not be subjected to the regulations which government have been forced in general to adopt with respect to aliens.

AUGUST.

Cambridge, Aug. 1. An alarming hurricane was experienced last Tuesday's midnight near Causton: its effects were first seen at a place called Mucklemore-pit, where it carried the water up to the tops of the houses; it forced down a haystack belonging to one Pye, and carried the thatch also off his house; its extent was marked in a field of peas, carrying them almost clear away, in a tract of about 16 yards wide, over the rows, and to the tops of trees. The workmen in the fields were much alarmed, as were most of the inhabitants in the neighbourhood; the noise it made being heard at the distance of a mile. Its direction, like hurricanes in general, was from N. N. E. to S. S. W. but differing greatly from the moderate whirlwinds usually experienced in this country; as it seemed, by the information of persons who witnessed its effects, to have resembled those known by the Asiatic sailors, by the name of Travados. It was attended with no rain, but followed by two claps of thunder.

Admiralty Office, Aug. 11, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Robert Hall, Commander of his Majesty's Sloop Lynx, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated at Sea, the 11th of July, 1798.

SIR,

Be pleased to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that on the 13th of last month, in lat. 28 deg. north, long. 72 deg. west, I captured a small French schooner privateer, called L'Hu-

belle, of 2 guns and 30 men; and on the 27th of the same month, in lat. 30½ deg. north, long. 71 deg. west, a French brig privateer, called Le Mentor, of 14 six-pounders (6 of which she threw overboard in the chase) and 79 men; they were both from Porto Rico, bound to the coast of America on a cruise. I yesterday also recaptured the American ship Liberty, from Philadelphia; bound to Liverpool, which had been taken six days before, a few hours after her getting out of the Delaware.

Admiralty Office, Aug. 11, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Lord Bridport to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated the 9th Aug. 1798.

I transmit a copy of a letter from sir Charles Hamilton, captain of his majesty's ship Melpomene, on the taking of L'Aventurier corvette brig, for their lordships' information, and which appears to do so much credit to the officers and men employed in the execution of this service.

Melpomene, Aug. 4, off Aberack.

My Lord,

Having determined to make an attack with the boats on the port of Corigiou, where a national brig and several vessels under protection were at anchor, on the evening of the 3d inst. I ordered the boats of his majesty's ship Melpomene and Childers sloop to be manned and armed, and at 10 P. M. dispatched them, under the command of lieutenant Shortland, who proceeded in the most judicious manner to the attack, which took place about three A. M. The badness of the night, from heavy rain, vivid lightning, and frequent squalls, very much favoured the execution of the design. They boarded the brig in different places nearly at the same moment, and carried her,

though

though not without more resistance than such a surprise gave reason to expect. The forts which command this inlet being now alarmed, and the wind having unfortunately veered round to the N. N. W. and blowing fresh directly into the passage, the merchant vessels no longer became an object of acquisition, and the intricacy of the channel made it doubtful whether the corvette even could be got out. The attempt, however, was made; and after working to windward, under a heavy fire from the batteries for upwards of two hours, it was at length, with great perseverance, effected. The brig appears to be the *Aventurier*, carrying 12 four-pounders and 79 men, commanded by citizen Ruffy, lieutenant de vaisseau. As no merit can redound to me from this enterprise, I do not hesitate to announce it to your lordship as one of the most gallant nature, and on which no encomiums of mine can do sufficient justice to the conduct of lieutenant Shortland, the officers and the men who performed it. Lieutenant Ross, of the marines, Mr. Boomly, purser of the *Childers*, and Messrs. Morgan, Palmer, and Erskine, particularly distinguished themselves.

Captain O'Brien, whom I had appointed to cover the boats, gave all the assistance that the circumstances could possibly admit of, and not without great risk, from the badness of the night and the dangers on the coast. Our loss is one man killed, one missing; Mr. Frott, midshipman, and three seamen, wounded.

The enemy have 16 wounded, and several mortally.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES HAMILTON.
Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. &c.

Admiralty Office, Aug. 14.

Copy of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Sir Alan Gardner, Bart. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board his Majesty's Ship *Royal Sovereign*, at Sea, the 10th of August, 1798.

SIR,

Inclosed I transmit, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, copy of a letter I received yesterday afternoon from sir Edward Pellew, bart. captain of his majesty's ship *Indefatigable*, dated at sea the 5th instant, giving an account of the capture of the French ship privateer *l'Heureux*, of 16 guns and 112 men, after a chase of 32 hours.

I am, sir, &c.

A. GARDNER.

Indefatigable, at Sea, Aug. 5.

SIR,

I have much pleasure in communicating to you the capture of the French ship privateer *l'Heureux*, mounting 16 guns and manned with 112 men, a very handsome ship, coppered, and perfectly new, and in every respect fit for his majesty's service.

I fell in with this ship at daylight on the 4th instant, on her return from a cruise, in company with a merchant ship, her prize, called the *Canada*, John Sewel master, from Jamaica to London (last from Charleston), laden with sugar, rum, and coffee.

These vessels separated upon different courses, the latter steering direct for Bayonne, the former, after a circular chase of 32 hours, led us in sight of Bayonne, and the *Canada*, which ship, after exchanging the prisoners, we drove on shore under that town, where at least her cargo must be destroyed, as the sea ran very high, and the wind

wind dead on the shore. I have also the honour to inclose a list of the captures made by the privateer, and remain, sir, &c.

EDWARD PELLEW.

Sir, Alan Gardner, bart. &c.

List of Captures made by L'Heureux French Ship Privateer on her last Cruise of eight Weeks from Douvilleux.

Zephyr brig, from Jersey, 8 guns, 30 men, privateer.

Dartmouth brig, r, from Guernsey, 6 guns, 26 men, privateer.

Alliance American ship, from New York to Liverpool, tobacco.

Canada, English ship, from Jamaica to London, with rum, sugar, and coffee, drove on shore near Bayonne by his majesty's ship Indefatigable.

EDWARD PELLEW.

15. The storms have been remarkably severe in Kent, particularly in the isle of Thanet; but the lightning has had the best effects on the fly which has so long infested the hop-grounds, which now put on a better appearance. In the evenings of the 13th and 14th, at Ramsgate, there were violent storms of thunder and lightning. About two o'clock, a small water-spout discharged itself, by which the cellars in some parts of Ramsgate had four feet of water in their hold. Some walls were broken down, and several roofs damaged. The lightning was very vivid, and lasted many hours; but, fortunately, no lives were lost. The tornado was so local, that many parts of the town had scarcely a drop of rain.

16. During the thunder-storm this forenoon, an extraordinary and powerful tornado was witnessed by the inhabitants of Boreham-street, about 18 miles from Lewes. It seemed to gather in the north-east and to take a south-westerly direction, occupying but a very narrow

space. The first object from which it met any resistance was Champney's barn, the gates of which it forced off their hinges, and broke one of them in pieces; and, in its passage through the barn, entirely stripped it of its heeling, and left scarcely a single rafter standing. In a neighbouring field it took up a great number of wheat-sheaves, and carried them so high in the air, that the Three Charles's, off Beachy-head, were clearly seen under them by several persons who were then at Mr. Montague's house. The collections of loose corn which it waisted in the air were by many at a distance taken for large flights of crows. The stubble, in the wheat-fields through which it passed, was, by its violence, beat flat to the ground; and, during its continuance, which was about ten minutes, a beautiful water-spout accompanied it.

Admiralty Office, Aug. 21. This gazette contains an account of the capture of the French national corvette *La Vaillante*, commanded by the lieut. de vaisseau *La Porte*, mounting 20 guns, nine-pounders, pierced for 22, and manned with 175 men, having on board 25 banished priests, 27 convicts, and madame Rovere and family, for Cayenne.

23. Intelligence arrived at the India-house, that the Princess Amelia was burnt by accident off Pigeon island, on the Malabar coast, on the 5th of April, 1798. About 40 of the crew were lost.

28. A general court of proprietors was held at the East-India house, for the purpose of taking into consideration a resolution of the court of directors for granting a pension to the right honourable Robert lord Hobart, late governor of Fort Saint George.

The

The proceedings of the last court having been read,—

The chairman (Jacob Bosanquet, esq.) acquainted the court, that the directors had, on the 8th of August last, come to a resolution, stating, "that, it having been deemed expedient to revoke the succession of the right honourable lord Hobart to the general government of India, it was resolved, as a gratuity to his lordship, and a mark of their approbation of his conduct, that a pension of 1500*l.* per annum should be granted to him, payable out of the territorial property of the company for the period of their exclusive trade to India, if he should so long live."

The chairman said it was necessary for him to address the court, in order to explain the motives by which the court or directors had been actuated in adopting the resolution just read. In so doing he should not enter into a detailed history of all the circumstances which had rendered it expedient to revoke the succession of lord Hobart to the government of India: he was the less inclined to state particulars, as it could not be done without bringing forward documents, letters, and various matters of a secret and delicate nature, the publication of which could only tend to gratify public curiosity, while, on the other hand, it might be injurious to the affairs of the company. It was sufficient for him to state, that about four years ago lord Hobart was appointed governor of Fort St. George, and that at the time of such appointment, it was perfectly understood between government and his lordship, that, in the event of the death or resignation of the then governor general of Bengal, he was to succeed him. Certainly his lordship

had such an assurance; it was so understood by him; and there could be no doubt but such was the intention of government. Unfortunately, however, disputes of a nature not now necessary to be made the subject of inquiry had taken place; it was not his intention to say how far his lordship had acted right or wrong respecting those disputes; but of this he was well assured, that, whatever part he had taken, he could have been influenced by no other consideration than that of a sincere regard for the interests and welfare of the company, and the dignity and prosperity of his country. The principal subject to which these differences related was the re-appointment to the general governorship of a noble marquis, to whose zeal and exertions while in India no praise of his could do justice; and who was now, with equal advantage to his country, conducting the affairs of our sister kingdom. The nature of the dispute between lord Hobart and his majesty's ministers, and the circumstances attending it, were such as to induce them to revoke the succession of his lordship to the government; and consequently his lordship found himself deprived of the high honours and advantages attending such an appointment as that of governor-general of India, without having been guilty of any fault, without having done any one act by which he could have justly forfeited his claim to them. Under these circumstances his lordship was certainly entitled to such a remuneration, as would not only compensate him for the loss of what he had a right to expect, but would also manifest to the public the high sense the company entertained of his services. His lordship had made an affidavit, stating,

that

that during the time he had remained in India, he had not added to his fortune either by presents, or other sources of emolument, except by the salary and fees allowed him; it must therefore be evident to every proprietor, that, from the very short time he had held the governorship of Fort St. George, he could not have amassed any considerable sum: and it was for this reason the court of directors had thought proper to vote him a pension of 1500l. a year. The measure met the perfect approbation of the board of commissioners; indeed there was this difference between the board of commissioners and the court of directors on the subject, that the latter had thought even a pension of 2000l. would not have been going too far. It was a proper matter of consideration for the proprietors, that lord Hobart had quitted a station in Ireland which afforded him the most flattering prospect of future emolument, in order to direct his services to the advantage of the East India company; and that he had done so, upon the faith of succeeding to the government of India. If that principle of liberality, by which the company were always actuated in rewarding services, was founded in policy with regard to its inferior officers, how much more so must it be, when applied to persons who had filled so high a station as that entrusted to lord Hobart. He therefore should move, that this court do confirm the resolution of the court of directors.

Sir Stephen Lushington rose to second the motion. He bore testimony to the services of lord Hobart, and thought them entitled to the proposed recompense. The circumstance of depriving him of the succession of the governorship of India must necessarily have the

effect of injuring him in the eyes of the public; it must naturally be supposed he had done something wrong, which had induced government to act by him as they had; and probably his lordship would hereafter feel the effects of a prejudice such conduct must have raised against him, unless it was obviated by the adoption of a resolution expressive of the approbation of the company. It was true these were times which made a rigid œconomy necessary, and the company had to regret some recent losses of a heavy nature; but they were not such as to make any material difference in the affairs of the company, and certainly could form no argument against the propriety of granting a pension of 1500l. to a meritorious officer. He concluded by heartily concurring in the motion.

The chairman said, as the court of directors had been unanimous in agreeing to the resolutions, he thought it would be the most delicate line of conduct towards the noble lord, for the proprietors to give the court of directors full credit for the propriety of their motives, and adopt the resolutions with the same unanimity they had done.

No person seemed disposed to speak either for or against the motion—it was therefore put by the chairman. Very few held up for, and very few against it; yet the latter seemed to have the advantage. A division was loudly called for; but the chairman proposed taking the sense of the court again. Upon the second show of hands, the majority was evidently against the motion. A division was still called for, and at length took place; when there appeared,

For the motion	27
Against it	35—Majority 8.

Adjourned.

28. Three French frigates appeared in the bay of Killala, on the evening of the 22d instant, and landed about 700 men, who took possession of the town of Killala, and made a small party of sensible prisoners. Their farther proceedings are detailed in subsequent gazettes.

SEPTEMBER.

From the London Gazette, Sept. 1.

Whitehall, Sept. 1, 1798.

A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received here this day from Dublin.

Dublin Castle, August 29.

SIR,

In the absence of my lord lieutenant, I beg leave to acquaint you, for the information of his grace the duke of Portland, that, early on the 27th instant, the French attacked lieutenant-general Lake in a position he had taken at Castlebar, before his forces were collected, and compelled him to retire. Thé lieutenant-general reports that his loss of men is not considerable, but that he was obliged to leave behind him six pieces of cannon. It appears by a letter I have received this day from my lord lieutenant, that the French have advanced upon Tuam. His excellency was assembling forces at Athlone.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CASLIEREAGH.

William Wickham, esq.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Butterfield, of his Majesty's Sloop Hazard, dated Cork Harbour, August 26th, to Vice Admiral Kingmill, &c.

On the morning of the 7th instant, I fell in with and captured an American snow, which had been taken by a French privateer on the 4th; and, in consequence of the

information given me by the American master, went in pursuit of the enemy. On the 12th I fell in with a French privateer mounting 24 guns, which I chased during two days. When we got nearly within gun-shot of her, I had the mortification to see her guns thrown overboard; by which means she started from us, and gained so considerably, that, finding it impossible to come up with her, and seeing another suspicious ship to windward, being then in lat. 46 deg. 12 min. longitude 18 deg. 23 min. I altered my course and gave chase, and at four P. M. being within gun-shot, she hauled up her courses, hoisted French colours, and fired a shot.

An action immediately commenced between us, which lasted an hour and fifty minutes, when she struck, and proved to be Le Neptune national armed ship, manned with 50 seamen, and 270 troops on board, from the isle of France, bound to Bordeaux, pierced for 20 guns, mounting 10, all of which she fought on the same side. During the action she attempted several times to board us; the soldiers in her kept up a very heavy fire of musquetry; and a privateer, with French colours flying, was in sight to leeward the whole time. The enemy had between 20 and 30 men killed and wounded, and fortunately wounded only six on board of us. I beg to recommend to your notice my first lieutenant, Mr. J. Fairweather, whose able assistance and good conduct on this and all other occasions merit my warmest encomiums. I have also great reason to be satisfied with Mr. Dathan, my second lieutenant, and Mr. Lancaster, the master, and likewise Mr. Edward Davis, the purser, who volunteered his services, and commanded

manded the marines on the quarter-deck, their proper officers being dangerously ill. In short, all my officers and ship's company behaved themselves in a manner which does them infinite credit. The Hazard is not materially injured, having only a few shot in her hull and rigging.

2. This afternoon, about six o'clock, the north-east bank of the new river suddenly burst, about half a mile from Hornsey-house; and, between that spot and the part called Tottenham freehold, the neighbouring meadow-lands, for a circuit of perhaps three or four miles, were presently inundated, and the lower parts of them to the depth of three or four feet. The part of the bank which is completely carried away is about nine yards in length, and the rupture goes so low as within eighteen inches of the bed of the river. At seven o'clock the water at Hornsey was not knee-deep. The noise occasioned by the fall of water was plainly heard at the distance of a mile. A great number of workmen were dispatched to repair the breach.

4. This day's gazette contains an account of the capture of the French privateer *Le Tigre*, of 8 guns, and 53 men, by captain Pierrepont of the *Naiad*.

Admiralty Office, Sept. 8, 1798.

By letters received at this office from the hon. captain De Courcy, of his majesty's ship *Magnanime*, dated the 21st and 25th ult. addressed to Evan Nepean, esq. it appears that on the 16th of that month he had fallen in with and captured *La Colombe* French privateer, of 12 guns and 64 men, quite a new vessel, coppered, copper-fastened, and a very fast sailer; had been only four days from Bayonne, bound to the West Indies. That on the 24th

1798.

following, at two P. M. two ships of war were observed steering to the S. E. under a crowd of sail, which proved to be his majesty's ship *Naiad*, captain Pierrepont, in chase of a French frigate. At five P. M. the two British ships neared the enemy, who, after a well directed fire for the space of one hour from her stern-chase guns, at the *Naiad*, struck, and was immediately taken possession of. She proves to be *La Décadé*, commanded by le citoyen Villeneuve, manned with 336 men, and pierced for 44 guns, ten of which however had been landed at Cayenne, from whence she had just returned. Captain Pierrepont makes the strongest acknowledgments of the ardour by which his officers and men were animated during an anxious chase of 32 hours, in constant expectation of battle, and most particularly of the services which he experienced from his first lieutenant, Mr. Marshall.

Both his majesty's ships, with the prizes, have arrived at Plymouth.

The same gazette contains an account of the capture of *La Sophie*, of 20 guns, and 130 men, and the recapture of the *Britannia* extra English ship, and the *May Flower*, from Lisbon to London, by captain Williams of the *Endymion*, also of *Le Mercure*, French privateer of 18 guns and 132 men, by captain Stopford of the *Phæton*.

Admiralty-Office, Sept. 8, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Harvey, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships at the Leeward Islands, to Mr. Nepean, dated Prince of Wales, Fort Royal Bay, Martinique, July 14, 1798.

I have to acquaint you, for the information of their lordships, that since my letter to you of the 12th

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ult.

ult. the undermentioned French privateers, belonging to Guadeloupe, have been captured at the periods, and by the ships and vessels of his majesty's squadron under my command, as against their several names expressed.

By the Solebay, captain Poyntz, 13th ult. off Martinique, Le Destin schooner, of 4 guns and 46 men.

By the Matilda, capt. Mitford, 23d ult. to the northward of Antigua, L'Etoile sloop, of 6 guns and 53 men.

By the Hawke, capt. Rotherham, 8th instant, off St. Lucia, Le Mahomet schooner, of 4 guns and 34 men.

11. This night the *Castor* West-Indiaman parted her anchor, and drifted on shore at Limehouse-reach, when she broke her back, and filled with water. Her cargo is supposed to be worth 15,000*l*. The magistrate of the Marine-office, Wapping new-stairs, sent the glutmen to save her cargo.

12. The storm of wind last night was as tremendous as any remembered by the oldest man living; at the turn of the tide contrary to the wind, a great number of boats were dashed to pieces, and sunk, and below bridge several ships were driven from their moorings, and sustained considerable damage: by land its effects were also severely felt. In Lambeth several houses were unroofed and chimneys blown down; and in Hyde-park and Kensington gardens a great many trees were blown up by the roots, and shattered branches of them carried through the air to remote distances. Even in the streets the current of wind was in some places so violent as to break the lamps. We do not, however, hear any person has suffered bodily hurt.

Whitchall, Sept. 12, 1798.

A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received this morning from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland by his grace the duke of Portland, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

St. John's Town, County of Longford, Sept. 8, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the satisfaction to inform your grace, that the French troops which landed in this country have surrendered at discretion, after sustaining for some time an attack from the column under gen. Lake. The rebels who had joined them were dispersed, and a great proportion of them killed or taken. I cannot at present ascertain the numbers either of the French or rebels; but I believe that both were inconsiderable.

I have not had an opportunity of seeing general Lake since the action, and can therefore at present give your grace no further particulars, than that no officer was killed or materially wounded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His grace the duke of Portland,
&c. &c. &c.

13. Robert Ladbroke Troyt was convicted of forging a draft for the payment of 75*l*. on Mellis. Devaynes and company, bankers. The prisoner was a young man about eighteen, clerk to a gentleman of eminence in the profession of the law.

Whitchall, Sept. 14, 1798.

A dispatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received this morning from his excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, by his grace the duke of Portland, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

Camp

*Camp near St. John's Town,
Sept. 8, 1798.*

My Lord,

When I wrote to your grace on the 5th, I had every reason to believe, from the enemy's movement to Drumahain, that it was their intention to march to the north; and it was natural to suppose that they might hope that a French force would get into some of the bays in that part of the country; without a succour of which kind, every point of direction for their march seemed equally desperate.

I received, however, very early in the morning of the 7th, accounts from lieutenant-general Lake, that they had turned to their right to Drumkeirn, and that he had reason to believe that it was their intention to go to Boyle, or Carrick on Shannon; in consequence of which I hastened the march of the troops under my immediate command, in order to arrive before the enemy at Carrick, and directed major-general Moore, who was at Tubercurry, to be prepared, in the event of the enemy's movement to Boyle.

On my arrival at Carrick, I found that the enemy had passed the Shannon at Balintra, where they attempted to destroy the bridge; but lieutenant-general Lake followed them so closely, that they were not able to effect it.

Under these circumstances I felt pretty confident, that one more march would bring this disagreeable warfare to a conclusion; and having obtained satisfactory information that the enemy had halted for the night at Cloone, I moved with the troops at Carrick, at ten o'clock on the night of the 7th, to Mohill, and directed lieutenant-general Lake to proceed at the same time to Cloone, which is about three miles from Mohill; by which movement I

should be able either to join with lieutenant-general Lake in the attack of the enemy, if they should remain at Cloone, or to intercept their retreat, if they should (as it was most probable) retire on the approach of our army.

On my arrival at Mohill soon after day-break, I found that the enemy had begun to move towards Granard; I therefore proceeded with all possible expedition to this place, through which I was assured, on account of a broken bridge, that the enemy must pass in their way to Granard, and directed lieutenant-general Lake to attack the enemy's rear, and impede their march as much as possible, without bringing the whole of his corps into action. Lieutenant-general Lake performed this service with his usual attention and ability; and the inclosed letter, which I have just received from him, will explain the circumstances which produced the immediate surrender of the enemy's army.

The copy of my orders, which I inclose, will shew how much reason I have to be satisfied with the exertions of the troops; and I request that your grace will be pleased to inform his majesty, that I have received the greatest assistance from the general and staff officers who have served with the army.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

P. S. I am sorry to find that the wounds of lieutenant Stephens of the carabineers are more dangerous than they had been reported. His grace the duke of Portland,
&c. &c. &c.

Letter from Lieutenant-General Lake to Captain Taylor, Private Secretary to his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, dated Camp, near Ballinamuck, September 8, 1798.

(H 2)

SIR,

SIR,

I have the honour to acquaint you, for the information of his excellency the lord lieutenant, that, finding upon my arrival at Balaghy that the French army had passed that place from Castlebar, I immediately followed them to watch their motions. Lieutenant-colonel Craufurd, who commanded my advanced corps, composed of detachments of Hompesch's and the first fencible cavalry, by great vigilance and activity, hung so close upon their rear, that they could not escape from me, although they drove the country, and carried with them all the horses.

After four days and nights most severe marching, my column, consisting of the carabineers, detachments of the 23d light dragoons, the first fencible light dragoons, and the Roxburgh fencible dragoons, under the command of col. sir Thomas Chapman, lieutenant-colonel Maxwell, earl of Roden, and captain Kerr; the third battalion of light infantry, the Armagh, and part of the Kerry militia, the Reay, Northampton, and prince of Wales's fencible regiments of infantry, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Innes, of the 64th regiment, lord viscount Gosford, earl of Glandore, major Ross, lieutenant-colonel Bulkeley, and lieutenant-colonel Macartney, arrived at Cloone about seven o'clock this morning, where having received directions to follow the enemy on the same line, whilst his excellency moved by the lower road to intercept them, I advanced, having previously detached the Monaghan light company, mounted behind dragoons, to harass their rear.

Lieutenant-colonel Craufurd, on coming up with the French rear-guard, summoned them to surren-

der; but as they did not attend to his summons, he attacked them, upon which upwards of two hundred French infantry threw down their arms, under the idea that the rest of the corps would do the same thing; captain Pakenham, lieutenant-general of ordnance, and major-general Craddock, rode up to them. The enemy, however, instantly commenced a fire of cannon and musquetry, which wounded general Craddock; upon which I ordered up the third battalion of light infantry, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Innes, and commenced the attack upon the enemy's position. The action lasted upwards of half an hour, when the remainder of the column making its appearance, the French surrendered at discretion. The rebels, who fled in all directions, suffered severely.

The conduct of the cavalry was highly conspicuous. The third light battalion, and part of the Armagh militia (the only infantry that were engaged) behaved most gallantly, and deserve my warmest praise. Lieutenant-colonel Innes's spirit and judgment contributed much to our success.

To brigadier-general Taylor I have to return my most sincere thanks for his great exertions and assistance, particularly on this day; also to lord Roden, sir Thomas Chapman, major Kerr, and captain Ferguson, whose example contributed much to animate the troops. I ought not to omit mentioning lieutenant-colonel Maxwell, major Pakenham, and captain Kerr, whose conduct was equally meritorious; and I feel infinitely thankful to all the commanding officers of corps, who, during so fatiguing a march, encouraged their men to bear it with unremitting perseverance.

To

To captain Packenham, lieutenant-colonel Clinton (who came to me with orders from lord Cornwallis), and major-general Craddock (who joined me in the morning), I am highly indebted for their spirited support; the latter, though early wounded, would not retire from the field during the action.

I acknowledge with gratitude the zeal and activity displayed on all occasions by lieutenant-colonel Meade, major Hardy, assistant quarter-master-general, captains Taylor and Eustace of the engineers, captain Nicholson, and my other aides-de-camp.

I cannot conclude my letter without expressing how much our success is to be attributed to the spirit and activity of lieutenant-colonel Craufurd, and I beg leave to recommend him as a most deserving officer.

I have the honour to be, &c.

G. LAKE.

GENERAL ORDERS.

Head-quarters, near St. John's-Town, Sept. 9.

Lord Cornwallis cannot too much applaud the zeal and spirit which has been manifested by the army, from the commencement of the operations against the invading enemy, until the surrender of the French forces.

The perseverance with which the soldiers supported the extraordinary marches which were necessary to stop the progress of the very active enemy, does them the greatest credit; and lord Cornwallis heartily congratulates them on the happy issue of their meritorious exertions.

The corps of yeomanry, in the whole country through which the army has passed, have rendered the greatest services, and are peculiarly entitled to the acknowledgments of

the lord lieutenant, from their not having tarnished that courage and loyalty which they displayed in the cause of their king and country, by any acts of wanton cruelty towards their deluded fellow-subjects.

Return of the killed, wounded, and missing, of the King's Forces at the Battle of Ballinamuck, September 8, 1798.

Officers—killed 6—wounded 1.

Privates—killed 3—wounded 12—missing 3.

Horses—killed 11—wounded 1—missing 8.

Officer wounded—lieut. Stephens, of the carabineers.

Ordnance, Arms, and Ammunition taken.

3 light French 4-pounders.

5 ditto ammunition waggons, nearly full of made-up ammunition.

1 ditto tumbril, 700 stand of arms, with belts and pouches, with a great number of pikes.

Return of the French Army taken Prisoners at the Battle of Ballinamuck, Sept. 8, 1798.

General and other officers 96

Non-commissioned officers

and soldiers - - - 746

Horses, about - - - 100

N. B. Ninety-six rebels taken—three of them called general officers, by the names of Roach, Blake, and Teeling.

The enemy, in their retreat before the troops under my command, were compelled to abandon 9 pieces of cannon, which they had taken in the former actions with his majesty's forces.

G. LAKE, lieut.-gen.

Names of the principal Officers of the French Force taken at the Battle of Ballinamuck, 8th September, 1798.

Humbert, général en chef.

Sarazin, général de division.

(H 3)

Fontaine,

Fontaine, général de brigade.
 Laferure, chef de brigade attaché à
 l'état-major.
 Dufour, ditto, ditto.
 Aulty, chef de bataillon.
 Demanche, ditto.
 Toussaint, ditto.
 Babin, ditto.
 Silbermon, ditto.
 Menou, commissaire ordonnateur.
 Brillier, commissaire de guerre.
 Thibault, payeur.
 Puton, aide-de-camp.
 Framair, ditto.
 Moreau, capitaine waguemestre
 général.

Ardouin, chef de brigade.

Serve, chef de bataillon.

Hais, ditto.

Mauchaud, ditto.

Brand } Officiers de santé.
 Massonnet }

RECAPITULATION.

Sous-officiers	-	96
Grenadiers	-	78
Fusiliers	-	440
Carabiniers	-	33
Chasseurs	-	60
Canonnières	-	41

Total 748

Officiers 96

844

Certifié par le chef de brigade,

P. ARDOUIN.

18. Ended a court-martial held by adjournment, since the 9th, on board his majesty's ship *Gladiator*, on 25 men for mutiny on board the *Defence* of 74 guns. Nineteen were condemned to death, (six of whom were recommended to mercy) and the rest to be whipped and imprisoned.

Admiralty Office, Sept. 18.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Earl St. Vincent to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the *Ville de Paris*, off Cadiz, August 20.

SIR,

I inclose a letter from captain Dixon, of his majesty's ship the *Lion*, acquainting me with his success in capturing his catholic majesty's frigate *El Dorothea*. Captain Dixon seems to have displayed great judgment and cool courage on this occasion.

ST. VINCENT.

Lion at Sea, July 16.

My Lord,

It is with the greatest pleasure I have the honour to inform your lordship, that yesterday morning at nine o'clock, *Carthagena* bearing N. 79 W. distant 29 leagues, I had the good fortune to fall in with a squadron of Spanish frigates, as per margin *, and that, after having brought them to close action about a quarter past eleven o'clock, which lasted with great warmth till ten minutes past one. P. M. the enemy was totally defeated and put to flight, leaving the *Dorothea* to her fate, having hoisted an English ensign with the union downwards: and as I considered her in the greatest distress, I lost not a moment in taking possession, which was done in the face of the three remaining frigates, distant about two miles on my weather-bow.

In detailing the particulars of the above affair, I have to inform your lordship, that at the hour the frigates were descried in the S. E. quarter, the *Lion* was steering east

* *Pomona*, of 42 guns and 350 men, Felix O'Neil commodore, don Francis Villamil captain.

Dorothea, of 42 guns and 370 men, don Manuel Gerrero captain.

Cassilda, of 42 guns and 350 men, don Dean. Ferrara captain.

Proserpine, of 42 guns and 350 men, Quaj. Bial captain.

They all sailed from *Carthagena* the 5th instant on a cruise.

with a crowd of sail, the wind moderate at W. S. W. and as I soon discovered by their signals and other manœuvres they were enemies, I immediately cleared ship for action: which being effected in the shortest time I ever recollect to have seen, I acquainted the officers and ship's company with my intention of immediately bringing the frigates to the closest action possible; and observing the cheerfulness with which it was received, I determined not to lose a moment to profit thereby, and accordingly took in studding-sails and first reefs of the top-sails, in order to secure the fighting of the lower battery, and hauled up towards the frigates, which were steering for the Lion. Having secured the weather-gage, I bore down on the enemy, who was forming in a close order of battle, on the larboard line of bearing: the third frigate from the van had lost her fore-top-mast. It immediately occurred to me that the crippled ship was my object, in order to secure a general action; supposing that a Spaniard (from the nobleness of his character) would never, with so superior a force, forsake a friend in distress. In this I fortunately succeeded; and steering for and closing with the crippled ship, which was now become the sternmost in the line of battle, the other three frigates tacked in succession, and passed the Lion very gallantly within musquet-shot; but as their line after tacking was by no means a close one, they each received a well-directed broadside from the Lion, the good effect of which was very visible by their standing a considerable time on that tack. I still continued to steer for the crippled ship, who, nearly sailing as well as the Lion, galled her very

considerably in the rigging by her stern chafes.

The three frigates made a second close attempt, but not so close as the former, to support her, and were each fully repaid by an exchange of broadsides. At length we closed with the crippled ship, and poured in a destructive fire, the yard-arms being just clear of each other; he nevertheless did not strike for some time after. At this period I found the Lion totally ungovernable, having all her braces, bowlings, clue garnets, &c. shot away, the fore-sail nearly rendered useless, and the other sails much torn.

The three frigates a third time made a distant and feeble effort to protect and cover the distressed frigate, but in vain; they did not dare to approach within the distance to do so: and by great exertions being enabled to wear round on the same tack with the frigate that had now struck her colours, and substituted the English ensign in its place, I closed with and took possession of her as before related.

During the remainder of the day we were lying to, fully employed in repairing the rigging, bending new canvas, and securing the prize, in order to enable me, if possible, to go in pursuit of the three frigates, which were making off close by the wind to the N. W.

Now, my lord, it is with the greatest and most heart-felt pleasure to me, that this service has been effected with the probable loss of only one poor man, who has had his thigh amputated, as likewise Mr. Patey, midshipman, slightly wounded in the shoulder; this youth did not quit his quarters in consequence of the wound, and was, from first to last, particularly active. But, my lord, there have been se-

veral miraculous recoveries in the *Lion*, owing to the great ability and humane attention of the surgeon, Mr. Young, I therefore never despair of a man while there is life.

I have now the satisfaction of declaring to your lordship, that nothing could exceed the cool and collected bravery and determined resolution of every individual in the *Lion*. I have taken the *Dorothea* in tow, as she has her mizen-mast and fore-top-mast carried away, and sails and rigging cut to pieces, her rudder and main-mast much damaged, as well as on account of the necessary attendance of the surgeon to the relief of the wounded men on board; the surgeon of the *Dorothea* being an inexperienced man, and without the necessary instruments.

I can get, my lord, but an imperfect account of the killed on board the *Dorothea*; their complement, at the commencement of the action, was called three hundred and fifty, and now there are victualled on board the *Lion* three hundred and fifty-one; many volunteers embarked on board at Carthage: the captain and officers suppose there might be from twenty to forty killed in the action, and the wounded now on board the *Lion* are thirty-two.

I am, &c. &c.

MANLEY DIXON.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of a French privateer lugger, called the *Huffard*, mounting 14 guns, and having on board 34 men, by his majesty's ship the *America*;—also, the capture of the French frigate *La Flore*, of 36 guns and 255 men, by the *Antion* and *Phæton*;—also, the Spanish ships *L'Edad de Oro*, and *La Guaira*, by his majesty's ships *Nymphé* and *Aurora*, and the Lord

Hawke privateer;—also, the recapture of the *Charlotte* sloop, by his majesty's ship *Nymphé*;—also, by his majesty's ship *Lynx*, capt. Hall, the *Mentor* French brig privateer, of 14 six-pounders and 79 men, and another of 2 guns and 30 men; and also, a ship called the *Liberty* (an American), which had been captured by a French privateer, re-taken.

20. John Shaw, esq. was duly elected alderman of Portsoken ward, vice sir Benjamin Hammett, resigned.

Admiralty Office, Sept. 22, 1798.
Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Admiral Earl of St. Vincent, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Ville de Paris, before Cadiz, 20th August, 1798.

I inclose the representation of a very gallant and obstinate action, fought by his majesty's sloop *L'Espoir*, of 14 six-pounders, against a Ligurian pirate of very superior force, which reflects such lustre upon his majesty's arms, that too much cannot be said in praise of it.

The loss of Mr. Soulbis, the master, is greatly to be lamented, as he was a very promising young man.

His majesty's sloop L'Espoir, Gibraltar, August 10, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your lordship, that, having under my charge part of the *Oran* convoy, on the 7th instant, about five P. M. I discovered a large ship seemingly steering to cut off the convoy, or for Malaga, cape Windmill bearing N. E. by N. four or five leagues. If she proved an enemy, I saw the preservation of the convoy depended upon my opposing her. I therefore hauled out from them, and made all fail to meet her. A little before seven

P. M.

P. M. perceiving her to be a man of war, and hove to to receive me, I hoisted our colours, that we might know each other, being then within musket-shot. She did not think proper to display hers, but when we came upon her weather quarter, hailed, which I answered. He then ordered me, in a very imperious manner, and in good English, to "go to leeward of him and strike, or he would sink me," firing one shot into us, and instantly after his whole broadside, which we returned, and continued a very heavy fire of great guns and small-arms on both sides, till about three quarters past ten P. M. when we had the satisfaction to hear him call out for quarter, "begging us not to fire any more; he was a Genoese." I told him again we were a British man of war, and ordered him to lower all his sails, and come on board of me: but he paid no further attention, and kept shooting up, to gain a situation to rake us. We brought our broadside to bear, and, thinking his force too great to be trifled with, gave it to him with its full effect, and he returned it; but on our shooting a-head, and tacking to give him the other, he again cried out, "begging us not to fire again, that he was badly wounded, but would obey my orders immediately:" and on his lowering his sails, all firing ceased about eleven P. M. The vessel is called the *Liguria*, Don Franc. de Orso commander, a Dutch frigate, sold to the Genoese, and mounting 17 eighteen-pounders, 4 twelve-pounders, 10 six-pounders, 12 long wall-pieces, and 4 swivels, with 120 men on board, of all nations.

It would give me infinite pleasure if I could close this, without having to inform your lordship,

that in the first hour of the action I lost my master, Mr. Soulsby; a loss I felt most severely, for he was brave with the greatest coolness, and knew his duty well. I had six men wounded, two badly; the *Liguria* had seven killed and fourteen wounded; among them the boatswain was killed, and the first captain very dangerously wounded.

No panegyric of mine can do justice to either warrant-officers or men; for the great disparity between the vessels shows, that, had it not been for their spirited exertions, we must have fallen a sacrifice to these pirates, or whatever else they may be. The service is much indebted to the spirited conduct of captain Brown, of the 28th regiment, who happened to be on board, by his animation inspiring all around, and by his attention to the guns; nor would I do justice if I did not beg leave, in the strongest terms to recommend to your lordship's notice Mr. Hemphill, the purser, who with my leave came up from below, where he was stationed; and, by his assiduity in attending the guns, saved me much, as, after the loss of the master, my attention was more particularly required in manœuvring the helm and sails.

I have the honour to be, &c.

LOFTUS OTWAY BLAND.

Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent,

K. B. &c. &c.

29. This gazette contains a proclamation for the farther prorogation of parliament from the 25th of October to the 6th of November next, on which day it is purposed to meet for dispatch of business.

A common hall was held at Guildhall, for the election of a lord mayor for the ensuing year.

The

The recorder represented to the livery the importance of the business for which they were convened, and conjured them to make choice of a man for their chief magistrate whose abilities were adequate to the critical situation of the times. The common serjeant then called over the names of the different gentlemen who had served the office of sheriff. The names of Mr. alderman Coombe and sir Richard Carr Glynn being proposed, it was declared, that the voice of the livery was in favour of those two gentlemen.

A poll was demanded for alderman Newman and granted; but, upon consultation, the alderman's son came upon the hustings, and informed the sheriffs that his father would not give the livery any further trouble. The sheriffs went up to the court, and made the return, and shortly afterwards the recorder came and stated, that the choice of the court of aldermen had fallen on sir Richard Carr Glynn, who was immediately invested with the insignia of the magistracy.

The number of aldermen who voted in favour of sir Richard Carr Glynn was 15; that in favour of alderman Coombe was 5.

Sir Richard addressed the court, and, in a very manly and energetic speech, thanked his fellow citizens for the honour they had, by their election, done him. He expressed his determination to devote his whole mind to the interests and welfare of the city of London, and to the support of the government of the country; and assured them, that his conduct should have for its object the securing their confidence and good opinion.

Mr. alderman Coombe said, his feelings were sufficiently gratified

by the approbation of the livery. He had no fault to find with the court of aldermen for the preference which they had made—perhaps their choice had fallen upon a worthier (though a junior alderman) than himself. He should continue his exertions for the advantage of the livery, and he pledged himself that the event of the day should excite no animosity in his breast against any individual whatever.

The thanks of the hall were unanimously voted to the late sheriffs, sir William Herne and Robert Williams, esq. each of whom, in an appropriate speech, expressed his high sense of the honour done him.

The hall then adjourned. There was the fullest attendance of liverymen we ever remember.

OCTOBER.

Admiralty Office, Oct. 2, 1798.

The hon. captain Capel, of his majesty's sloop *Mutine*, arrived this morning with dispatches from rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson, K.B. to Evan Nepean, esq. secretary of the admiralty, of which the following are copies.

*Vanguard, Mouth of the Nile,
Aug. 7, 1798.*

SIR,

Herewith I have the honour to transmit you a copy of my letter to the earl of St. Vincent, together with a list of the English and French squadrons, also a list of killed and wounded. I have the pleasure to inform you, that eight of our ships have already top-gallant-yards across, and ready for any service; the others, with the prizes, will soon be ready for sea. In an event of this importance, I have thought it right to send captain Capel

Capel

pel with a copy of my letter (to the commander in chief) over-land, which I hope their lordships will approve; and beg leave to refer them to captain Capel, who is a most excellent officer, and fully able to give every information; and I beg leave to recommend him to their lordships' notice.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

P. S. The island I have taken possession of, and brought off the two thirteen-inch mortars, all the brass guns, and destroyed the iron ones.

Evan Nepean, esq.

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile, Aug. 3, 1798.

My Lord,

Almighty God has blessed his majesty's arms in the late battle, by a great victory over the fleet of the enemy, whom I attacked at sunset on the 1st of August, off the mouth of the Nile. The enemy were moored in a strong line of battle for defending the entrance of the bay (of Shoals) flanked by numerous gun-boats, four frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an island in their van; but nothing could withstand the squadron. Your lordship did me the honour to place under my command. Their high state of discipline is well known to you, and with the judgment of the captains, together with their valour and that of the officers and men of every description, it was absolutely irresistible.

Could any thing from my pen add to the characters of the captains, I would write it with pleasure: but that is impossible.

I have to regret the loss of captain Westcott, of the *Majestic*, who was killed early in the action; but the ship was continued to be so

well fought by her first lieutenant, Mr. Cuthbert, that I have given him an order to command her till your lordship's pleasure is known.

The ships of the enemy, all but their two rear ships, are nearly dismantled; and those two, with two frigates, I am sorry to say, made their escape; nor was it, I assure you, in my power to prevent them. Captain Hood most handsomely endeavoured to do it: but I had no ship in a condition to support the *Zealous*, and I was obliged to call her in.

The support and assistance I have received from captain Berry cannot be sufficiently expressed. I was wounded in the head, and obliged to be carried off the deck; but the service suffered no loss by that event. Captain Berry was fully equal to the important service then going on, and to him I must beg leave to refer you for every information relative to this victory. He will present you with the flag of the second in command, that of the commander in chief being burnt in the *L'Orient*.

Herewith I transmit you lists of the killed and wounded, and the lines of battle of ourselves and the French.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

To admiral the earl of St. Vincent, commander in chief, &c. off Cadiz.

ENGLISH LINE OF BATTLE.

1. Culloden, T. Trowbridge, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
2. Theseus, R. W. Miller, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
3. Alexander, Alex. J. Ball, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
4. Vanguard, rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. Edward Berry, captain, 74 guns, 595 men.
5. Minotaur,

5. Minotaur, T. Louis, captain, 74 guns, 640 men.
 6. Leander, T. B. Thompson, captain, 50 guns, 343 men.
 7. Swiftsure, B. Halliowell, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 8. Audacious, D. Gould, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 9. Defence, John Peyton, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 10. Zealous, Samuel Hood, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 11. Orion, sir J. Saumarez, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 12. Goliath, Tho. Foley, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 13. Majestic, Geo. B. Westcott, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
 14. Bellerophon, Henry D. E. Darby, captain, 74 guns, 590 men.
- La Mutine brig.

HORATIO NELSON.

FRENCH LINE OF BATTLE.

1. Le Guerrier, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
2. Le Conquérant, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
3. Le Spartiate, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
4. L'Aquilon, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
5. Le Souverain Peuple, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
6. Le Franklin, Blanquet, first contre-amiral, 80 guns, 800 men, taken.
7. L'Orient, Brueys, admiral and commander in chief, 120 guns, 1010 men, burnt.
8. Le Tonnant, 80 guns, 800 men, taken.
9. L'Heureux, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
10. Le Timoléon, 74 guns, 700 men, burnt.
11. Le Mercure, 74 guns, 700 men, taken.
12. Le Guillaume Tell, Villeneuve, second contre-amiral, 80 guns, 800 men, escaped.

13. Le Généreux, 74 guns, 700 men, escaped.

FRIGATES.

14. La Diane, 48 guns, 300 men escaped.
15. La Justice, 44 guns, 300 men escaped.
16. L'Artémise, 36 guns, 250 men burnt.
17. La Sérieuse, 36 guns, 250 men dismasted and sunk.

HORATIO NELSON

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile, Aug. 3, 1798.

A Return of the killed and wounded in his Majesty's Ships under the Command of Sir Horatio Nelson K. B. Rear Admiral of the Blue in Action with the French at Anchor, on the 1st of August, 1798 off the Mouth of the Nile.

Theseus—5 seamen killed; officer, 24 seamen, 5 marines wounded; total 35.

Alexander—1 officer, 13 seamen killed; 5 officers, 48 seamen, marines wounded; total 72.

Vanguard—3 officers, 20 seamen, 7 marines killed; 7 officer 60 seamen, 8 marines wounded total 105.

Minotaur—2 officers, 18 seamen 3 marines, killed; 4 officers, 5 seamen, 6 marines wounded; total 87.

Swiftsure—7 seamen killed; officer, 19 seamen, 2 marines wounded; total 29.

Audacious—1 seaman killed; officers, 31 seamen, 2 marines wounded; total 36.

Defence—3 seamen, 1 marine killed; 9 seamen, 2 marines wounded; total 15.

Zealous—1 seaman killed; 7 seamen wounded; total 8.

Orion—1 officer, 11 seamen, marine killed; 5 officers, 18 seamen, 6 marines wounded; total 42.

Goliath—2 officers, 12 seamen, marines

marines killed; 4 officers, 28 seamen, 9 marines wounded; total 62.

Majestic—3 officers, 33 seamen, 14 marines killed; 3 officers, 124 seamen, 16 marines wounded; total 193.

Bellerophon—4 officers, 32 seamen, 13 marines killed; 5 officers, 126 seamen, 17 marines wounded; total 197.

Leander—14 seamen wounded.

Total—16 officers, 156 seamen, 46 marines killed; 37 officers, 562 seamen, 78 marines wounded; total 895.

OFFICERS KILLED.

Vanguard—Captain Taddy, marines, Mr. Thomas Seymour, Mr. John G. Taylor, midshipmen.

Alexander—Mr. John Collins, lieutenant.

Orion—Mr. Baird, captain's clerk.

Goliath—Mr. William Davies, master's mate; Mr. Andrew Brown, midshipman.

Majestic—George B. Westcott, captain; Mr. Zebedee Ford, midshipman; Mr. Andrew Gilmore, boatswain.

Bellerophon—Mr. Robert Savage Daniel, Mr. W. Launder, Mr. George Joliffe, lieutenants; Mr. Thomas Ellifson, master's-mate.

Minotaur—Lieutenant J. S. Kirchner, master; Mr. Peter Walters, master's-mate.

OFFICERS WOUNDED.

Vanguard—Mr. N. Vassal, Mr. J. Adye, lieutenants; Mr. J. Campbell, admiral's secretary; Mr. M. Austin, boatswain; Mr. J. Weatherston, Mr. George Antrim, midshipmen.

Thefeus—Lieutenant Hawkins.

Alexander—Alexander J. Ball, esq. captain; captain J. Cresswell, marines; Mr. W. Lawson, master; Mr. G. Bully, Mr. Luke Anderson, midshipmen.

Audacious—Mr. John Jeans, lieutenant; Mr. Christopher Font, gunner.

Orion—Sir James Saumarez, captain; Mr. Peter Sadler, boatswain; Mr. Phil. Richardson, Mr. Ch. Miell, Mr. Lanfesty, midshipmen.

Goliath—Mr. William Wilkin-son, lieutenant; Mr. Law. Graves, midshipman; Mr. P. Strachan, school-master; Mr. James Payne, midshipman.

Majestic—Mr. Charles Seward, Mr. Charles Royle, midshipmen; Mr. Robert Overton, captain's clerk.

Bellerophon—H. D. Darby, esq. captain; Mr. Ed. Kirby, master; captain John Hopkins, marines; Mr. Chapman, boatswain; Mr. Nicholas Bettson, midshipman.

Minotaur—Mr. Thomas Irwin, lieutenant; lieutenant John Jewell, marines; Mr. Thomas Foxten, 2d master; Mr. Martin Wills, midshipman.

Swiftsure—Mr. William Smith, midshipman.

HORATIO NELSON.

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile, Aug. 11, 1798.

SIR,

Herewith I send you a copy of my letter to the earl of St. Vincent, of this date.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

Evan Nepean, Esq.

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile, Aug. 11, 1798.

My Lord,

The Swiftsure brought in this morning la Fortune, French corvette, of 18 guns and 70 men.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

Earl St. Vincent.

4. The metropolis and neighbourhood were splendidly illuminated, and every public demonstration

tion of joy shewn on the news of admiral Nelson's victory. A subscription for the relief of the widows and children of the brave seamen who fell, was begun at Lloyd's coffee-house, on the same day the news arrived, and 1100l. were immediately subscribed.

4. The hon. capt. Capel waited on the right hon. the lord mayor, with the sword of the French admiral, M. Blanquet, which was surrendered in the late naval combat to sir Horatio Nelson, and intended by that gallant commander as a present to the city of London, accompanied by the following letter:

*Vanguard, Mouth of the Nile,
Aug. 8, 1798.*

"My Lord,

"Having the honour of being a freeman of the city of London, I take the liberty of sending to your lordship the sword of the commanding French admiral (M. Blanquet) who survived after the battle of the 1st. off the Nile; and request that the city of London will honour me with the acceptance of it, as a remembrance that Britannia still rules the waves; which that she may ever do, is the fervent prayer of

Your lordship's

most obedient servant,

HORATIO NELSON.

Downing-street, Oct. 6. By advices received from his majesty's minister at Constantinople, dated September 3, it appears, that war has been declared by the grand signor against the French; that the French minister, with his legation, has been sent to the castle of the Seven Towers; and that some French merchant ships in the harbour have been taken possession of. The Russian auxiliary squadron was in sight of Constantinople on that day.

Downing-street, Oct. 9. By letters

from Switzerland, of the 18th of September, it appears, that on the 8th and 9th of that month the troops of the canton of Unterwalden were, after a most obstinate resistance, totally defeated by the French army. The most horrid carnage ensued. Stanz, the principal town of the canton, has been reduced to ashes, and old men, women, and children, put to the sword without mercy! The French had to contend with 1600 of the inhabitants of Unterwalden, who were joined by a few hundred volunteers from the neighbouring cantons. A small body of peasants from Schweitz performed prodigies of valour, and was the means of saving the colours of the canton. The wretched remains of this unfortunate army have taken refuge in the mountains.

[This gazette also contains an account of the capture of L'Araignée French schooner privateer, mounting 4 four-pounders and 1 nine-pounder carronade, but pierced for 10 guns, carrying 38 men, by his majesty's ship Triton, capt. Gore;—also, the River de Este Ondenening, Dutch privateer schooner, of 8 guns and 38 men, by his majesty's armed sloop Charlotte, commanded by lieutenant John Williams. It also contains a letter from captain Lane, of the Acasta, in which he states, that, on the 1st of June, the Ceres, capt. Otway, chased la Mutine French privateer brig, of 18 guns and 150 men, to windward of St. Juan; but, from the state of the weather and shoal water, was unable, for some days, to take possession of her; the crew, in the interim, had warped her close in shore for the purpose of defending her from the beach; capt. Otway, however, sent his boats the first moment the weather

weather permitted (covering them with the *Ceres*), under the command of lieutenant Wooldridge. The enemy, having set fire to her, quit- ted, and formed in great numbers on the beach, keeping up a very heavy fire on the boats; while taking pos- session of her, and striking the co- lours, some of the *Ceres'* shot hav- ing taken place below her water- line, she filled, which making it impracticable to bring her off, the fire was permitted to take effect. The *St. Josef la Victoria*, of 8 guns (but pierced for 16) and 50 men, from Europe, was chased on shore by the *Acasta*, 6 leagues to windward of St. Juan; the boats of which ship being sent to take possession, and finding it impossible to bring her off, set fire to and com- pletely destroyed her. Receiving intelligence, upon which was placed great dependence, that the French privateers were doing incredible mischief off the N. E. end of Porto Rico, and two Spanish frigates be- ing daily expected at St. Juan, they immediately proceeded thither, and made the following captures off that port: viz. by the *Acasta*, the *St. Mary*, of 4 guns and 28 men; the *St. Antonio*, pierced for 14 guns: *La Vengeance*, of 6 guns, 71 men, pierced for 10 guns; *St. Josef la Victoria*, 8 guns, 50 men, pierced for 16 guns, burnt; *St. Michael Acandoa*, 6 guns, 28 men, pierced for 6 guns. By the *Ceres*, *Sally*, 7 men; *Goulette*, 11 men; *L'Avanture*, 14 men; *La Mutine*, 18 guns, 150 men, burnt; *Cargo*, 2 guns, 5 men, pierced for 4 guns, two small schooners, scuttled; two small sloops, scuttled; also, a pola- cre ship from St. Juan. And it also contains a letter from captain Eyre, of the *Regulus*, stating, that, having discovered five vessels at anchor in Aguada bay, at the N. W.

end of the island of Porto Rico, he manned *La Poulaine*, a French schooner, of 4 guns, and 32 men, which he had captured a few days before, and sent her, together with the boats of the *Regulus*, under the command of lieutenant Good, to en- deavour to cut them out, proceed- ing in with the ship for their pro- tection and support; the wind un- fortunately failing, neither the *Re- gulus* nor schooner could get in near enough to be of any material service: the whole effort conse- quently fell upon the boats; but, through the judicious arrangement and very spirited conduct of lieutenant Good, well supported by lieutenant Holman and the junior officers and men under their command, three of the largest vessels, consisting of a ship, a brig, and an armed schooner, were brought away: and, had there been the smallest breath or wind, the same would have been the case with the other two, both which were also boarded, and in our possession for a considerable time: but it falling a dead calm at the moment the cables were cut, and not having boats sufficient to tow so many vessels, it became ne- cessary to quit some, in order to secure those which appeared of the most importance. Mr. T. Finch, master's mate, a very promising young man, was killed by a grape- shot from one of the batteries, and was the only person hurt upon this occasion.

10. At a court of common council this day, the lord mayor, after opening the court, laid before them the letter he had received from lord Nelson, and presented the sword to the court, which was re- ceived with unbounded applause. It was agreed to refer it to a com- mittee of all the aldermen and a commoner out of each ward, to consider

- consider the best manner of disposing of the sword, and report to the next court. It was then unanimously resolved, that an humble and dutiful address be presented to his majesty, on the glorious victory over the French, by his majesty's fleet, off the Nile, on the first of August last, under the command of Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. rear-admiral of the blue, now baron Nelson of the Nile. The sheriffs were desired to wait on the king, on his return from Weymouth, to know his royal will and pleasure when the court shall attend. The court thanked the sheriffs for their very polite offer to go immediately to his majesty at Weymouth, on the occasion; and it was referred to a committee to consider of the most respectful and best method of the court for conveying to the gallant lord Nelson, officers, and seamen, the high sense of their meritorious services.

Plymouth, Oct. 15. This afternoon, at 5 o'clock, the long-boat, with 6 seamen, lately belonging to the Jason frigate, of 38 guns, capt. C. Sterling, arrived here. By them intelligence is received of the total loss of that ship on the coast between Brest and Cape de Raz, on Saturday last, between three and four o'clock in the afternoon. In the forenoon of that day she gave chase to five sail of French chaffemarées, and an armed lugger, which, on perceiving the Jason, made for the shore; and in following them she struck on a sunken rock, and soon afterwards began to fill so rapidly, that it was deemed prudent to quit her without delay, in order to preserve the lives of the officers and crew; which was happily effected without the loss of a single man. The 6 seamen, James Brown, William Skinner, George Parker, Richard Grover, James Oram, and John

Hoares, who are arrived here, requested permission of the officers to make their escape in the long-boat; which was acceded to, and they set sail at 7 on Saturday evening; previous to which the Jason had nearly filled with water, and the remainder of the crew were all landed, whom they saw march off under an escort of the military to prison. Capt. Sterling, his officers, and ship's company, were all well and in good spirits. The above men had only one cheese, a piece of boiled beef, and a bottle of gin, to subsist on during their passage, which they state to have been most tempestuous indeed, the wind having blown a gale at S. W. ever since they quitted the Jason.

16. At a court of common council held this day, the committee appointed to consider the best manner of disposing of the sword presented to the court by admiral lord Nelson, reported the following resolution; which was agreed to unanimously: That the sword delivered up to our gallant hero, lord Nelson, by the French admiral, M. Blanquet, be put up in the most conspicuous place in the common council chamber, with the following inscription engraved on a marble tablet:

“ The Sword of Mons. Blanquet, the commanding French Admiral, in the glorious Engagement off the Nile, on the first of August, 1798; presented to the Court, by the Right Hon. Rear-Ad. Lord Nelson.”

The lord mayor was requested to communicate to lord Nelson the high sense which the court entertained of the invaluable present of this sword. The thanks of the court, and a sword of the value of 200 guineas, were ordered to be presented to lord Nelson; and the lord

lord mayor requested to order the same, and present it to the victorious admiral. The thanks of the court were also ordered to be given to captain Berry, and the captains, officers, and seamen, for their important services; and it was resolved that the freedom should be presented to captain Berry in a gold box of 100 guineas value.

Admiral's Office, October 16.

This gazette contains an account of the capture of *Le François* French privateer, mounting 2 carriage guns, 6 swivels, and manned with 23 men, by his majesty's sloop *El Corio*, captain James;—also, a French brig privateer, called *Le Levrier*, pierced for 16 guns, and carrying 70 men, by his majesty's ship *Phaëton*, captain Stopford.

16. About half after eight o'clock this evening, while the magistrates were in the execution of their official duty, a most furious and outrageous mob assembled round the marine police-office, and, after shouting, instantly attacked the windows, broke the outside shutters, threw in large stones, and did a great deal of damage. As soon as it was possible for the magistrates and officers to force their way to the street, the riot act was instantly read; but before this was effected, while the mob were attempting to break into the house, the officers, who were by this time armed, fired one or two pistols; but the mob continued notwithstanding to be very outrageous, nor was it possible to make the least impression until one of the mob, a coal-heaver, was shot.—In a short time after one of the officers was wounded in the hand by a pistol ball, while standing close by Mr. Colquhoun and Mr. Hurriott, two of the magistrates,

and soon after it was discovered that a person named Franks, who was attached to the marine police-office institution, was mortally wounded.

The riot appears, on examination, to have originated with the associates of a coal-heaver, named Charles Eyres, who had been convicted a few minutes before for stealing coals. A more sudden attack, and a more infuriated mob, perhaps never was known; and the narrowness of the street contributed in a considerable degree to the mischief which was done; and nothing but the spirit shown by the officers would have prevented the outrage from extending to the destruction of the building.

Admiral's Office, Oct. 21, 1798.

Lieutenant Waterhouse arrived here late last night with the duplicate of a dispatch from sir John Borlase Warren, bart and K. B. captain of his majesty's ship *Canada*, to vice-admiral Kingsmill, of which the following is a copy:

*Canada, Lough Swilly, Ireland,
16th October, 1798.*

SIR,

In pursuance of the orders and instructions I received by the *Kangaroo*, I proceeded with the ships named in the margin*, off Achill-Head, and on the 10th instant I was joined by his majesty's ships *Melampus* and *Doris*, the latter of whom I directed to look out for the enemy off Tory Island and the Rosses; in the evening of the same day, the *Amelia* appeared in the offing, when captain Herbert informed me he had parted with the *Æthalion*, *Anson*, and *Sylph*, who, with great attention, had continued to observe the French squadron since their sailing on the 17th ult.

* *Canada*, *Robust*, *Foudroyant*, and *Magnanime*.

In the morning of the 11th, however, these two ships also fell in with us, and at noon the enemy were discovered in the N. W. quarter, consisting of one ship of 80 guns, eight frigates, a schooner, and a brig. I immediately made the signal for a general chase, and to form in succession as each ship arrived up with the enemy, whom, from their great distance to windward, and a hollow sea, it was impossible to come up with before the 12th.

The chase was continued in very bad and boisterous weather all day of the 11th, and the following night; when, at half past five A. M. they were seen at a little distance to windward, the line of battle ship having lost her main top-mast.

The enemy bore down and formed their line in close order upon the starboard tack; and, from the length of the chase, and our ships being spread, it was impossible to close with them before seven A. M. when I made the Robust's signal to lead, which was obeyed with much alacrity, and the rest of the ships to form in succession in the rear of the van.

The action commenced at twenty minutes past seven o'clock, A. M. the Rosses bearing S. S. W. five leagues, and at eleven, the Hoche, after a gallant defence, struck; and the frigates made sail from us: the signal to pursue the enemy was made immediately, and in five hours afterwards three of the frigates hauled down their colours also; but they, as well as the Hoche, were obstinately defended, all of them being heavy frigates, and as well as the ship of the line, entirely new, full of troops and stores, with every necessary for the establishment of their views and plan, in Ireland.

I am happy to say, that the efforts and conduct of every officer and man in the Squadron seemed to have been actuated by the same spirit, zeal, and unanimity in their king and country's cause; and I feel myself under great obligations to them, as well as the officers and men of this ship, for their exertions upon this occasion; which will, I hope, recommend them to their lordships' favour.

I left capt. Thornborough after the action, with the *Magnanime*, *Æthalion*, and *Amelia*, with the prizes: and am sorry to find he is not arrived; but trust they will soon make their appearance.

I have the honour to remain, sir,
your most obedient
humble servant,

J. N. WARREN.

P. S. The ships with us in the action were the *Canada*, *Robust*, *Entourageant*, *Magnanime*, *Æthalion*, *Melampus*, and *Amelia*.

The *Anson* joined us in the latter part of the action, having lost her mizen-mast in chase the day before.

I have sent my first lieutenant Turgand to take the command of the *Hoche*.

22. This afternoon, at a quarter past 6, their majesties and their royal highnesses the princesses arrived at Windsor from Weymouth in perfect health.

From the London Gazette, Oct. 23, 1798.

Philadelphia, June 27, 1798.

Mr. Marshall, one of the three commissioners at Paris, who lately arrived from France by way of New York, has been received with much distinction. He was met at some miles distance from Philadelphia by the secretary of state and some members of the senate, escorted into town by a party of the new-raised

raised volunteer corps, and a public dinner has been since given to him by the principal members of the two houses of congress.

Philadelphia, July 16, 1798.

The measures adopted with a view to place this country in a state of preparation for a war with France, continue to be carried on with considerable spirit. The defenceless situation of the different sea-port towns is particularly felt; and the erection or repair of the fortifications necessary for the protection of the most exposed places is begun all along the coast of the Atlantic, with a great degree of energy. In some parts of the country, particularly at New-York, individuals have offered their personal service, gratis, for the construction of batteries. The sum appropriated to this object by congress is four hundred and thirty thousand dollars: and an act has been passed, that when any individual state, that happens to be indebted to the general union, shall, with the approbation of the president, complete any fortification already begun, or erect any additional works, the money thus applied shall be placed to the credit of that state.

The three frigates ordered by congress to be completed and equipped, the United States of 44 guns, the Constitution of 44, and the Constellation of 36 guns, have found no difficulty in procuring their full complement of men, although the monthly pay, seventeen dollars to able-bodied seamen, and ten dollars to ordinary seamen, is much inferior to the wages given at present by the captains of merchant vessels.

A considerable addition to the number of these large frigates is likely to be made by voluntary subscription; the merchants of Phila-

delphia have undertaken to construct one of 44 guns: at Boston upwards of one hundred thousand dollars have been subscribed for a similar purpose: at Baltimore, one hundred thousand; at New York, Alexandria, Norfolk, Richmond, Charleston, and almost all the considerable towns of the union, proportionate sums have been generously contributed.

The congress have authorized the president to build a considerable number of vessels of inferior size:—6 of 32 guns, 12 of from 20 to 22 guns, 6 of 18 guns, and 10 galleys. The number of revenue cutters, which carry from 8 to 14 guns each, is also to be multiplied along the coasts; and the president is empowered to increase their complement of men to the number of 70. These vessels have been authorized by act of congress to take all French armed vessels, and to retake such American vessels as may have been captured. The exertions of the officers and crews have been encouraged by a law securing to them a certain share in the value of the prizes they may make. The French privateer lately brought in by the American sloop of war the Delaware, has been regularly libelled, and condemned in the court of admiralty here. The crews have been considered as prisoners of war, and are to be confined in Lancaster jail.

Congress has further ordered the formation of a corps of marines to consist of five hundred men, under the directions of a major and a proper number of subaltern officers; and it appears that it is likely to be raised without difficulty.

Much time has been spent in congress on a plan for better organizing and disciplining the militia.

The president has been authorised to purchase thirty thousand stand of small arms for the use of those bodies of militia that are most in want of them, which are to be deposited in convenient situations, and to be either lent to the different corps, or sold to them at prime cost.

The regular army of the United States is also to receive some increase: congress has authorised the raising of twelve new regiments of infantry, and six troops of light dragoons (which, with the two troops already existing, will form a regiment), in addition to the provisional army of ten thousand men which the president has it in his power to levy in case of a threatened invasion. By this means the regular army will amount upon the whole to between twelve and thirteen thousand men, exclusive of the provisional one just mentioned.

The volunteer corps proceed with very great success. The spirit of enlistment has been in some degree increased by a plan, adopted by congress, empowering the volunteers to form themselves into legions; that is to say, as it is understood here, into corps composed of infantry, cavalry, and artillery.

A body of this kind has very suddenly acquired numbers and respectability, and is likely soon to have the full complement of two thousand men. It is expected that those volunteers who may offer their service, in the whole extent of the United States, may, in the end, amount to from ninety to a hundred thousand men.

Vienna, Oct. 4. The last accounts from Malta, which were dated the 26th of August, brought intelligence that the French troops, to the number of about two thousand five hundred men, had, in

consequence of the discontents of the inhabitants, which had broken out into acts of violence, retired within the forts, whither they had transported the powder, and as much flour as they could lay up in the magazine; and that, in order to avoid the diminution of this store, they compelled the inhabitants and the town, by the firing of a cannon, laden with a ball, over their houses, to bring them, from time to time, sufficient provisions for their present consumption.

Constantinople, Sept. 8, 1798. Immediately upon receiving the news of the victory off the mouth of the Nile, the grand signor directed a superb diamond aigrette (called a chelengk, or plume of triumph), taken from one of the imperial turbans, to be sent to admiral sir Horatio Nelson, together with a pelice of sable fur of the first quality.

He directed also a purse of two thousand sequins to be distributed among the British seamen wounded at the battle of the Nile.

These presents are to be conveyed to sir Horatio Nelson in a Turkish frigate.

The following is a translation of the note delivered to Mr. Smith, his majesty's minister plenipotentiary, upon the occasion:

Translation.—It is but lately, that by a written communication it has been made known how much the Sublime Porte rejoiced at the first advice received of the English squadron in the White Sea having defeated the French squadron of Alexandria in Egypt.

By recent accounts comprehending a specific detail of the action, it appears now more positive that his Britannic majesty's fleet has actually destroyed by that action the
best

best ships the French had in their possession.

This joyful event, therefore, laying this empire under an obligation, and the service rendered by our much-esteemed friend adm. Nelson on this occasion being of a nature to call for public acknowledgement, his imperial majesty, the powerful, formidable, and most magnificent grand signor has destined as a present in his imperial name to the said admiral, a diamond aigrette (chelengk), and a sable fur with broad sleeves; besides two thousand sequins to be distributed among the wounded of his crew. And as the English minister is constantly zealous to contribute, by his endeavours, to the increase of friendship between the two courts, it is hoped he will not fail to make known this circumstance to his court, and to solicit the permission of the powerful and most august king of England, for the said admiral to put on and wear the said aigrette and pelice.

Sept. 8, 1798.

Constantinople, Sept. 19, 1798.
Vice-admiral Ouschakoff's squadron is now actually under weigh for the Dardanelles, &c.

By letters just received from Smyrna, it appears, that the general measures of police adopted against the French have been pursued there with a more exemplary rigour than elsewhere. The individuals of the French nation have been thrown into the common prisons, and the whole French mission, including Jean Bon St. André, and his papers, laden on half-a-dozen mules, are upon their way hither under an escort.

Three French vessels have been captured in the harbour, and the whole French property on shore confiscated.

Admiralty Office, Oct. 23, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from the Earl of St. Vincent, K. B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated off Cadiz, the 30th September, 1798.

SIR,

I inclose two letters, representing eminent services performed by officers and part of the crew of his majesty's ships the Goliath and Alcmena.

I am, sir, &c. &c.

ST. VINCENT.

*Goliath, off the Mouth of the Nile,
the 25th August, 1798.*

SIR,

I have great pleasure in informing you, that, at half after one this morning, the boats of his majesty's ship Goliath, under the direction of lieutenant William Debusk, attacked and carried, after an obstinate action of fifteen minutes, the French national armed ketch Torride, 70 men, commanded by Mr. Martin Bedar, lieutenant de vaisseau, mounting three long eighteen-pounders, four swivels, and well appointed in small arms: the castle of Berquier, under the guns of which the Torride was moored, also fired for her support; but the skill and courage of lieutenant Debusk and those under his command was such as to baffle every attempt to save her. The French captain is badly wounded; I have therefore sent him on shore with a flag of truce. Lieutenant Debusk is slightly wounded, and one of his people likely to suffer amputation of his left arm: the prize had three killed and ten wounded; several of the prisoners escaped to the shore by swimming.

I have, Sir, &c.

THO. FOLEY.

To captain Hood,
Zealous.

(13)

Review,

*Alcmene, off Alexandria,*SIR, *Aug. 22, 1798.*

I beg leave to inform you that *La Legere* French gun-boat, mounting two six-pounders, some swivels, and 61 men, was captured this day by his majesty's ship under my command.

Though every preparation was made for running along-side and boarding her, to save any dispatches she might have for Buonaparte, we could not prevent their being thrown overboard, which was however perceived by John Taylor and James Harding, belonging to the *Alcmene*, who, at the risk of their lives (the ship then going between five and six knots), dashed overboard, and saved the whole of them.

Both men were most fortunately picked up by the boat that was sent after them; and I conceive it my duty to make known the very spirited conduct they showed on this occasion, for the good of the service.

I am, &c. GEORGE HOPE.

To Samuel Hood, esq.

Capt. of his majesty's ship *Zealous*.

La Legere is 40 days from Toulon, bound to Alexandria with dispatches for general Buonaparte.

Admiralty Office, Oct. 23, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Graham Moore, Commander of his Majesty's Ship *Melampus*, to Sir John Borlase Warren, dated at Sea off Lough Swilly, the 16th instant.

SIR,

I have the honour to inform you, that on the 13th instant, at midnight, being well up towards St. John's Point, we discovered two large ships close to us on our weather beam: on seeing us, they heeled up on the opposite tack: as I had not the least doubt of their being two of the enemy's frigates, we tacked and closed with

the nearest in an hour, going ten knots. After hailing and ordering her to bring to without effect, she trying to get away athwart our stern, we opened such a fire upon her, as completely unrigged her in about twenty-five minutes, and forced her to bring to, and surrender; she proved to be *La Resolue* French frigate, commanded by Jean Pierre Barqueau, mounting 40 guns, and 500 seamen and troops on board, the other frigate was *L'Immortalité*, of 44 guns, twenty-four pounders, on the main deck, and 600 seamen and soldiers: she made several signals whilst we were occupied with her consort, but gave us no disturbance.

Both on this occasion, and during the action of the 12th, the officers, seamen, and marines, of his majesty's ship under my command displayed the utmost degree of zeal, alacrity, and gallant spirit; Mr. Martin (the first lieutenant, an old and good officer), with lieutenants Price, Ellison, and Hole, of the marines, conducted themselves much to my satisfaction; and I experienced very great assistance from the steady good conduct of Mr. Emory, the master.

As a very heavy gale of wind came on immediately after our boarding *La Resolue*, the second lieutenant, Mr. John Price, with twenty-one men, were all that could be thrown on board of her, with the loss of our two cutters. That officer deserves very great credit for his active exertion in clearing her of the wreck of her masts and rigging, and in keeping company in so violent a storm; as our object was to disable our antagonist before her consort could assist her. *La Resolue* had only ten men killed, and a great number wounded; but I am inexpressibly happy to add, that, in the

action

action of the 12th, we had only one man wounded; and the affair of the 13th did not deprive their country of the services of a single man of the brave crew of the *Melanpus*.

I have the honour to be, &c.

GRAHAM MOORE.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of *La Velos Aragoncia*, Spanish-built frigate (letter de marque), of 30 guns and 90 men, *José Eloy Sanchez* commander, with a cargo from *La Guayra*, after throwing many of her guns overboard in the chase, by his majesty's ship *Aurora*, capt. Digby; also, *De Mlle Andeneming* Dutch privateer schooner, of 8 guns and 38 men, by his majesty's armed sloop *Cherotte*, commanded by lieutenant John Williams; and also, by his majesty's ships *Concorde* and *Lapwing*, *La Buona parte*, of 8 guns and 72 men; *L'Amazone*, of 10 guns and 80 men; *Le Sauveur*, of 4 guns and 20 men; *La Fortune*, of 2 guns and 22 men; and the *Invariable* schooner letter of marque, of 4 guns and 20 men.

St. James's, Oct. 24. His majesty in council was pleased to order, that the parliament should be prorogued from November 6, to November 20, then to meet for the dispatch of business. His majesty also ordered that the embargo laid on ships and vessels by the privy council, on July 27, 1798, should be taken off, as far as relates to ships bound to any of the ports in the territories of the grand duke of Tuscany.

This gazette also contains an order in council extending the observance of fourteen-day's quarantine to vessels coming from *Batavia* and *New-York*, a malignant and infectious disorder, of the nature of the plague, having appeared in both

those places; and also an order to continue the bounties to seamen till Dec. 31, 1798.

Admiralty-office, Oct. 27.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Bridport, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated at Spithead, the 24th Instant.

SIR,

The inclosed copy of a letter which I received this morning will manifest to their lordships the courage, skill, and intrepidity, of capt. Martin, his officers, and ship's company, in the capture of the French frigate *L'Immortalité*, after a persevering and brilliant action against a ship of such superior force.

BRIDPORT.

Fishguard, Plymouth-foard, Oct. 22.

My Lord,

In compliance with your orders of the 17th inst. I proceeded with all possible dispatch, to the southward, and on the 20th inst. having arrived in latitude 48 deg. 23 min. north, long. 7 deg. west, I had the satisfaction to fall in with a large French frigate, and, after an hour's running fight, came to close action with her, which lasted for 25 minutes, when the *Fishguard* became perfectly ungovernable; the bowlines, braces, topmast-ties, tack-flays, and the whole of the running-rigging, being cut to pieces. At this critical moment she endeavoured to make off; but the activity of the officers and ship's company, in bringing the duties and making fast, soon enabled us to close with her again, and the fight was renewed and continued with great spirit and resolution for an hour and fifty minutes, when she surrendered to his majesty's ship, and proved to be *L'Immortalité*, a new frigate, mounting 12 guns, twenty-four-pounders, on the main deck, and nine-pounders, with

forty-two-pound carronades, on the quarter-deck and fore-castle, commanded by citizen Le Grand, who was killed in the action. She was one of the squadron that composed the expedition to Ireland; and at the commencement of the expedition had on board 580 men, including general Menage, second in command of the troops (who was also killed in the action), adjutant-general Crazev, and some soldiers. I should wish to recommend the steady good conduct of Mr. Carden, first-lieutenant of the Fish-guard, on this occasion, but not to the prejudice of any other person, as every officer and man on board behaved with that courage and intrepidity which at all times distinguish his majesty's subjects in the presence of the enemy. Annexed is a list of killed and wounded. I am sorry to say thirteen of our wounded men have suffered so much as to preclude all hope of their recovery.

J. B. MARTIN.

List of killed and wounded on board his Majesty's Ship Fish-guard.

Killed—William Bennett, Richard Wallis, John Caird, Edward Paine, Thomas Sketton, George Snalum, George Morton, Solomon McCormick, John Maxworthy, John Williams.—Wounded, lieutenant Gerrard, marines; seamen 23, marines 2.

Total killed and wounded 36.

Killed and wounded on board L'Immortalité.

Killed—Officers 10, men 44.—Wounded 61.

Total killed and wounded 115.

Admiral's Office, Oct. 30.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Durbin, Commander of his Majesty's ship Anson, to Evan Nepein, Esq. dated in Plymouth Sound.

I beg leave to inclose you a copy of a letter sent by this post to the right hon. admiral lord Bridport.

Anson, Plymouth-sound, Oct. 27.

My Lord,

From the disabled state of his majesty's ship under my command in the action of the 13th instant, and the wind remaining to the S. W. I was unavoidably separated from the squadron under the command of sir John Borlase Warren, bart. K. B. and drove considerably to the N. W. of Ireland. I have great satisfaction in informing your lordship, that on the 18th, at day-light in the morning, I discovered a large ship to leeward, fortunately for me, with the loss of her fore and main-top-masts (the Anson being by no means in a situation to chase), her mizen-mast gone, main-yard and main-cross-trees; the bowsprit and fore-yard shot through in several places. I immediately bore up, and got alongside of her. After an action of one hour and quarter, most gallantly disputed, which does the highest honour to citizen Joseph Andrien Segone, her commander, she struck; proved to be La Loire, one of the largest and finest frigates belonging to the republic, presented by the city of Nantes, quite new, and never before at sea, pierced for 50 guns, mounting forty-six 18-pounders, having on board 664 men (troops included), among whom are a number of artillery, état-major for three regiments. La Loire had 48 men killed, and 78 wounded, was one of the four frigates which the Anson engaged the 13th, and was making her escape from the coast. I beg leave particularly to acknowledge the steady and good behaviour of my officers and petty officers; cannot avoid recommending to your lordship's notice my first lieutenant, Mr. John Hinton, whose conduct, not only

upon

upon this occasion but many others, has met with my fullest approbation; not derogating from the behaviour of lieutenants Meager, Manderfon, and Mr. William Christoph, the master. I have also to acknowledge the services of lieutenants Bell and Derring, of the marines, who commanded the carro-nades; as to my ship's company, they have been faithful companions during four years in pretty active service, and their conduct upon all occasions merits my warm approbation. Having fallen in, the night before the action, with his majesty's brig Kangaroo, I ordered captain Brace, from the Anson's disabled state, to continue in company, and am much indebted to him for the services he has rendered me in taking possession of La Loire. Herewith I send a list of be killed and wounded.

Killed; Alex. Duncan, quartermaster; Matthew Birch, seaman.

Wounded; Mr. W. A. Bell, first lieutenant of marines; Mr. William Robilliard, Mr. Francis L. Payler, midshipmen; Henry Wilfon, James Davis, John Adams, John Houston, William Shaw, Peter Wilman, William Thomas (second), Patrick Kelly, seamen; James Cummings, Robert Dillon, marines.

Inclosed is a list of the stores, &c. found on board La Loire republican frigate.

Clothing complete for 3000 men, 1020 mullets in cases, 200 cures, 360 pouches, 25 cases of musket ball-cartridges, 1 brass field-piece, with a great quantity of ammunition of different kinds, in-enching tools, &c.

H. DURHAM.

Copy of a Letter from the Commander of his Majesty's Sloop Racoon, to Admiral Peyton.

Racoon, Downs, Oct. 20.

SIR,

I beg leave to acquaint you, that, at six A. M. on this morning, Blackness bearing S. E. by E. distance 3 leagues, I discovered 3 large loggers a-head; immediately made all sail, and gave chase; after a running fire of two hours, had the pleasure to come up with and capture one of them, Le-Vigilant lugger, mounting 12 four-pounders and 2 long sixes, carrying 55 men (six or seven of whom were left on shore at Boulogne), commanded by citizen Muirballe. On sending my boats on board, I found, that in consequence of being hulled in several places, she was sinking very fast, which detained me a considerable time (in endeavouring to stop the leak), otherwise I must have inevitably taken another before they could possibly have reached the coast of France. I have the pleasure to say, that all the prisoners got safe on board except those killed by my firing; and every exertion was used to save the vessel, but to no effect; at 9 A. M. she sunk; she was entirely new, had been out two cruises only, and taken nothing. One of the luggers in company had captured a brig, which I observed his majesty's sloop the Plover to take possession of, off Folkestone, at 11 A. M.

ROB. LLOYD.

This gazette also contains an account of the capture of the French schooner privateer Le Corsaire L'E-rin-go-brah, of 10 carriage guns and 8 swivels, part of which she threw overboard, and between 40 and 50 men, by his majesty's sloop Plover, capt. Chesshyre.

NOVEMBER.

3. This gazette contains an account of the destruction of a lag-ger

ger privateer, by being driven on the rocks of Cape La Hogue, by his majesty's ship *Aretnusa*, captain Wolley.

Admiralty Office, Nov. 6, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Lord Viscount Duncan, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the *Kent*, Yarmouth Roads, Nov. 5, 1798.

I have the satisfaction to inclose you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, a letter I received last night from captain King, of his majesty's ship *Sirius*, acquainting me of his having captured two Dutch frigates, in which he has displayed equal spirit and address.

I am, &c. &c.

DUNCAN.

Sirius, Grimby Roads, Nov. 1, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that, in pursuance of orders I received from vice-admiral sir Richard Onslow, bart. I parted company with the fleet on the evening of the 23d ult. to reconnoitre the force of the enemy in the Texel. At eight A. M. on the following morning, the Texel bearing S. by E. ten leagues, I fell in with the two Dutch frigates named in the margin*, at that time about two miles distance from each other.

Passing within gun-shot of the leewardmost of them, I stood on until I could (upon tacking) nearly fetch the weathermost (the *Waakzaamheid*), my object being to prevent their junction; and by this means, that being accomplished, I had the

satisfaction to cut off the latter, and bring her to about nine o'clock when she hauled down her colours and fired a gun to leeward; as soon as the prisoners were exchanged, made sail after the other; and, although nearly out of sight, I bore the good fortune before five P. M. to bring her to a kind of running action, which continued about half an hour, within musket-shot, times, during which she kept smart but ill-directed discharge of cannon and musketry, when she struck to his majesty's ship; she called the *Surin*, and under the orders of the captain of the *Waakzaamheid*, and had the command of the troops and a number of officers on board. I am happy to add, there was only one man wounded by a musket-ball, and that his majesty's ship suffered but little, one shot through her bowsprit; her rigging, &c. but little cut. The loss on board the *Surin* was eight killed and fourteen wounded: her hull, masts, &c. have suffered much.

I should be wanting in gratitude were I not to express my acknowledgments of the spirited conduct manifested by all my officers and ship's company on this occasion, particularly so on account of the reduction of numbers, by manning the other prize (in which I sent Mr. Goffet, my senior lieutenant), and in securing the officers, troops, &c. taken out of her.

This expedition has been waiting an opportunity of sailing since the 21st of July last. They it

* *Waakzaamheid*, captain Neirrop, senior captain, mounting 26 guns, 24 nine-pounders on the main deck, 2 six-pounders on the fore-castle, having 100 Dutch seamen and 122 French troops (total 222) on board, also 2000 stand of arms, besides other ordnance stores.

Surin, captain Pletz, of 36 guns, 26 twelve-pounders on the main deck, and 10 nine-pounders on her quarter-deck and fore-castle, with 153 Dutch seamen and 175 French troops (total 318) on board, also 1600 stand of arms, besides other ordnance stores.

the *Texel* at eleven o'clock the preceding night.

I have the honour to be, &c.

RICHARD KING.

Admiralty Office, Nov. 10.

Extract of a Letter from Captain George Countess, Commander of His Majesty's Ship *Zethalion*, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated in Plymouth Sound, Nov. 8, 1798.

I have to request you will be pleased to inform my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that, since my letter of 22d September by captain White, of the *Sylph*, I continued to watch the motions of the French squadron in his majesty's ship under my command (having with me the *Anson* and *Amelia*), until the 4th of October at noon, when a hard gale of wind coming on, we lost sight of them in lat. 53 deg. 13 min. north, and long. 16 deg. 15 min. west, Sligo Bay bearing north 77 east, distance 91 leagues. The wind being off shore, we carried sail to get in with the land, to give the necessary information. The *Amelia* separated on the night of the 8th. I had previously desired, in case of separation, each ship to make the best of her way to give the alarm. On the 11th we fell in with the squadron under sir J. B. Warren; but, it blowing strong, could not get on board to communicate any intelligence; but seeing the *Amelia* with him, I was satisfied he had all the information I could give. Soon after our joining the above squadron, the *Anson* made the signal for the enemy, whom we discovered coming down: but they hauled to the wind on observing us. We chased and kept close to them during the night, and next morning the attack commenced, which no doubt you have been fully informed of by sir J. B. Warren.

After the *Hoche* struck, we pursued the weathermost frigate, who was making off, and failed very fast. After a considerable chase we came up with and engaged her; she made an obstinate resistance for an hour and fifty minutes after we got abreast of her, when she struck her colours, most of her sails having come down, and five feet water in her hold. She proved to be the *Bellone*, of 36 guns, twelve-pounders, having 300 soldiers on board, besides her crew. The squadron chased to leeward, and of course we separated, being obliged to remain by the prize, and have been under the necessity of keeping the sea ever since.

I cannot speak too highly of the bravery and conduct of all my officers during the action, as well as of their extreme vigilance in watching them for seventeen days. Mr. Sayer, first lieutenant, is in the prize, and I can with pleasure say, his majesty has not a more zealous or a better officer. We had one man killed and three wounded. The enemy appear to have had twenty killed.

10. On Thursday last sir Richard Carr-Glynn, knight, lord mayor elect for the year ensuing, was sworn at Guildhall; when the chair and other ensigns of mayoralty were surrendered to him in the accustomed manner.

15. The dreadful devastation made in New-York by the yellow fever has subsided. No less than 3000 of the inhabitants died during the few months the disorder prevailed. The inhabitants had returned to New-York at the time the Westmoreland packet left that place, and might have done so at an earlier period, had they taken the precaution of having their houses opened and fumigated, instead of returning

returning to them from the fresh air in the country, while the contagion still hung about the buildings, and to which is attributed its remaining so long.

From the London Gazette, Nov. 13.

Naples, Sept. 25. His majesty's ships the Culloden, captain Trowbridge, the Alexander, captain Ball, and the frigate Bonne Citoyenne, came into this port on the 18th instant in the evening. His Sicilian majesty went out in his boat into the bay to meet them, as did numerous English and Neapolitan boats. The ships gave the royal salute to his majesty. Admiral sir Horatio Nelson, in the Vanguard, accompanied by the Thalia frigate, did not make his appearance in this bay until Saturday last the 22d inst. having been becalmed off Sicily.

The king of Naples not only went off to meet the admiral, but instantly went on board the Vanguard, and staid on board until that vessel was at anchor in the port. The royal salute was given by all the king's ships, both on his Sicilian majesty's arrival on board the Vanguard, and on his leaving the ship. The day being remarkably fine, numerous boats with colours and music attended the Vanguard, and all the shores and wharfs of Naples were crowded with a multitude of rejoicing people; and when the admiral came on shore, the reception the Neapolitans gave him was expressive of the utmost kindness and gratitude.

28. Every assistance has been given to the Vanguard, the Culloden, and Alexander, so that these ships will be fit to go again to sea in a few days. Yesterday his majesty's ship Colossus, captain Murray, with four victuallers, from Gibraltar, came to an anchor in this port.

This morning sir Horatio Nelson has received a letter from sir James Saumarez, dated from the port of Augusta in Sicily, the 17th instant, reporting all well in the squadron under his command: and that he hoped, having got water and fresh provisions, to sail from thence for Gibraltar the Wednesday following.

Captain Gage, in the Terpsichore, arrived here this morning. He left Malta the 26th instant, when sir James Saumarez with his squadron, in conjunction with the Portuguese squadron under the command of marquis Nizza, had summoned the French to surrender and evacuate Malta, which was refused by M. Vaubois, the commander in chief of Valetta; and that sir James Saumarez was proceeding with his squadron and French prizes to Gibraltar, having left the Portuguese to block Malta, and having, at the request of the Maltese insurgents, supplied them with a large quantity of ammunition and twelve hundred stand of arms from his French prizes. The Maltese say that the French are in the greatest want at Valetta.

Vienna, October 27. Intelligence was received on Thursday afternoon from general Bellegarde, of the Austrians having, at the formal request of the Grisons' government, taken possession of Coire and the important post of Richenau, and of detachments being on their march to occupy the rest of the country.

Admiralty Office, Nov. 16, 1798.
Copy of a Letter from Captain Columbine, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Hastings, Nov. 15.

I am to acquaint you, that this morning a French privateer having appeared off this place, and Mr. Wenham

Wenham having offered himself and cutter, the *Lion*, to go after her, I put on board her as many of the sea fencibles as I thought necessary, chased, and after a little firing, in which one Frenchman was killed, we took and brought her into this road. She is the *Succès*, of Cherbourg, Nicholas Dubois, master, with 4 guns and 24 men; had been out four days, without making any capture. I beg leave to add, that the Hastings men came forward on the occasion with the greatest zeal and readiness.

I have the honour, &c.

E. H. COLUMBINE.

18. On Sunday the *Britannia*, capt. Caleb Wilfon, of this port (belonging to Mr. Petrie), sailed from Shields, laden with lead, bacon, butter, bale-goods, &c. for London, having 11 or 12 passengers on board. On the Monday the wind shifted to the east, bringing on a heavy sea, which continued till the Friday, during which time the vessel beat about, and was driven to the northward, on the Staples, near the Fern islands, opposite Balmborough Castle, where she was totally wrecked, and all on board, both crew and passengers, 21 in number, unfortunately perished. Part of the vessel, with 50 firkins of butter, a carpenter's and a medicine chest, have since come ashore. The body of a child has also been found, near Balmborough. Amongst the unfortunate sufferers on this melancholy occasion were Mr. Thomas Heron, cabinet-maker, (son of the late Mr. Major Heron of this town), his wife and two children; John Cook, soap-boiler, and his wife (the daughter of Mrs. Foreman in the Close), both of which families were on a visit to their friends here; Thomas Scott, shipwright, belonging to this town,

who has left a wife and three young children, and Andrew Ferguson, a private in the Perthshire fencible cavalry, at present stationed here: the names of the other passengers are as yet unknown. Amongst those belonging to the vessel was Mr. John Watfon, the mate, brother to the captain.

Downing-street, Nov. 20. A decree having been published by the French directory, declaring, that all persons, natives of or originally belonging to neutral countries or countries in alliance with France, who may form a part of the crews of any of the king's ships of war or any other British vessels, shall be considered and treated as pirates; his majesty has directed it to be signified to the commissary for the French prisoners in Great Britain, that if this decree shall, in any instance, be carried into effect against any such persons taken in any vessels the property of his majesty or of his majesty's subjects, and navigated under the British flag, it is his majesty's determination to exercise the most vigorous retaliation against the subjects of the French republic, whom the chance of war has now placed or may hereafter place at the king's disposal.

Admiralty Office, Nov. 20.

Copy of a Letter from Commodore Sir John Borlase Warren, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the *Canada*, Plymouth Dock, Nov. 18.

SIR,

I have been waiting with great anxiety the arrival of the *Robuste* and *La Hoche* at this port, to enable me to make a return of the killed and wounded in the different ships under my orders upon the 12th October last; but, as I understand those ships may be still further detained by repairs at Lough Swilly,

I send

I send the inclosed, which it was impossible for me to obtain before the present moment, as the whole squadron was separated in chase of the flying enemy, and have successively arrived at this port; it was impracticable, therefore, to communicate the particulars to their lordships sooner, or to state the very gallant conduct of captains Thornborough and De Courcy, in the *Robust* and *Magnanime*, who, from their position in the van on that day, were enabled to close with the enemy early in the action, and were zealously and bravely seconded by every other ship of the squadron, as well as by the intrepidity displayed by the *Anson* in the evening in obeying my signal to harass the enemy, and in beating off their frigates.

For farther particulars I refer their lordships to the letters they may have received from captains Countess and Moore of the *Æthalion* and *Melampus*.

I am happy in reflecting that so many advantages to his majesty's arms have been purchased with so inconsiderable a loss in the ships of the squadron.

I have the honour to remain,

Sir,

your most obedient

humble servant,

JOHN WARREN.

21. The following declaration was unanimously subscribed to, at a very numerous meeting of the merchants, bankers, traders, and other inhabitants, of the metropolis, held at the Mansion-house on this day, the lord mayor in the chair:

1. That the principle of finance resorted to in the late session of parliament, namely, that of raising within the year a considerable portion of the sum necessary for the public service, had contributed, in

an eminent degree, to the improvement of public credit, and the advantage of the community.

2. That the meeting was nevertheless of opinion, that the criterion then assumed, as the basis of that extraordinary supply, had been found unequal in its operation, inasmuch as it had failed to call forth a due ratio of contribution from many descriptions of persons.

3. That, impressed with full confidence that the resources of these kingdoms were adequate to the maintenance of the national honour and independence, the meeting thought it proper to declare their readiness to give their utmost support to such measures as the legislature might deem best calculated to call forth those resources in a more equal and effectual manner, trusting, that its wisdom would devise such expedients for that purpose, as, combined with our late glorious victories, might afford the means of further spirited resistance to the power and pretensions of the enemy, and secure, not only the blessings we now enjoy, but also that ultimate object of all our exertions—a safe and honourable peace.

Dublin, Nov. 22. This morning exhibited a scene of distress, fortunately very rare, in the harbour of Dublin. A tremendous gale of wind at S. E. had blown incessantly for the three preceding days but last night it increased to a most dreadful tempest; two large merchantmen were driven from their anchors in Poolbeg, and stranded on the Clontarf shore; two others ran upon the North Bull, when one of them oversitting, 14 of her crew attempted to make their escape in the boat, and were all drowned in the surf. The *Active* Lee, from Liverpool to this port

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was driven by the gale close under Lord Clare's house at the Black Rock. A Welch loop foundered at her moorings in the Liffey, near the new docks; and the Kangaroo loop of war, which lay in the bay, was driven from her anchors over the bar, through Poolbeg, and up the Liffey as far as the Marine School, where she at last was happily brought up with the loss of her guns, which she had been obliged to throw overboard. Several boats and small craft were sunk in the tempest.

Admiral Nelson received the honours of the peerage in consequence of his late gallant conduct, and in this day's gazette the following additions were made to his armorial ensigns.

Whitehall, Nov. 20, 1798. The King has been graciously pleased to give and grant unto the right honourable Horatio baron Nelson of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe in the county of Norfolk, rear-admiral of the blue squadron of his majesty's fleet, and knight of the most honourable military order of the Bath, in consideration of the great zeal, courage, and perseverance manifested by him on divers occasions, and particularly of his able and gallant conduct in the glorious and decisive victory obtained over the French fleet near the mouth of the Nile on the first day of August last, his royal licence and authority, that he and his issue may bear the following honourable augmentations to his armorial ensigns, viz. A chief undulated argent, thereon waves of the sea, from which a palm-tree issuant, between a disabled ship on the dexter, and a ruinous battery on the sinister, all proper; and for his crest, on a naval crown or, the chelengk, or plume of triumph,

presented to him by the grand signor, as a mark of his high esteem, and of his sense of the gallant conduct of the said Horatio baron Nelson in the said glorious and decisive victory, with the motto, "*Palmam qui meruit ferat*;" and to his supporters, being a sailor on the dexter, and a lion on the sinister, the honourable augmentations following, viz. In the hand of the sailor a palm branch, and another in the paw of the lion, both proper, with the addition of a tri-coloured flag and staff in the mouth of the latter; which augmentations to the supporters to be borne by the said Horatio baron Nelson and by those to whom the said dignity shall descend in virtue of his majesty's letters patent of creation: and that the same may be first duly exemplified according to the laws of arms, and recorded in the Herald's office.

And also to order, that his majesty's said concession, and especial mark of his royal favour, be registered in his College of Arms.

London Gazette, Nov. 21.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Thomas Thompson, of his Majesty's late Ship the Leander, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board the Lazaretto, at Trieste, the 14th of October, 1798.

SIR,

Upon my arrival at this place, I immediately acquainted sir Horatio Nelson with the capture of his majesty's ship Leander, under my command, and beg leave to inclose a copy of my letter to the rear admiral, for the quicker information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty. I have, &c.

THOMAS THOMPSON.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Thompson, late Commander of his Majesty's Ship Leander, to Rear-

Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. dated Trieste, Oct. 13, 1798.

It is with extreme pain I have to relate to you the capture of his majesty's ship *Leander*, late under my command, by a French 74 gun ship, after a close action of six hours and a half. On the 18th August last, being within five or six miles of the west end of Goza, near the island of Candia, we discovered at day-break a large sail on the S. E. quarter, standing directly for the *Leander*; we were then becalmed, but the stranger bringing up a fine breeze from the southward, we soon made him to be a large ship of the line. As the *Leander* was in officers and men upwards of 80 short of her complement, and had on board a number who were wounded on the 1st, I did not consider myself justified in seeking an action with a ship that appeared of such considerable superiority in point of size; I therefore took every means in my power to avoid it: I, however, soon found that our inferiority of sailing made it inevitable, and I therefore, with all sails set, steered the *Leander* a course which I judged would receive our adversary to the best advantage, should he bring us to battle. At eight o'clock the strange ship (still continuing to have the good fortune of the wind) had approached us within a long random shot, and had Neapolitan colours hoisted, which he now changed to Turkish; but this deception was of no avail, as I plainly made him to be French. At nine he had ranged up within a half gun-shot of our weather quarter; I therefore hauled the *Leander* up sufficiently to bring the broadside to bear, and immediately commenced a vigorous cannonade on him, which he

instantly returned. The ships continued nearing each other until half past ten, keeping up a constant and heavy firing. At this time I perceived the enemy intending to run us on board; and the *Leander* being very much cut up in rigging, sails, and yards, I was unable, with the light air that blew, to prevent it. He ran us on board the larboard bow, and continued alongside us for some time; a most spirited and well directed fire, however, from our small party of marines (combined by the serjeant), on the poop and from the quarter-deck, prevented the enemy from taking advantage of his good fortune, and he was repulsed in all his efforts to make an impression on us. The firing from the great guns was at this time kept up with the same vigour; and a light breeze giving the ships way, I was enabled to steer clear of the enemy, and soon afterwards had the satisfaction to luff under his stern, and passing him within ten yards, distinctly discharged every gun from the *Leander* into him.

All from henceforward was nothing but a continued series of heavy firing within pistol-shot without wind, and the sea as smooth as glass. I feel it unnecessary to give you the detail of the effects of every shot, which must be obvious from our situation; I shall therefore content myself with assuring you, that a most vigorous cannonade was kept up from the *Leander* without the smallest intermission until half past three in the afternoon. At this time, the enemy having passed our bows with a light breeze, and brought himself on our starboard side, we found that our guns on that side were nearly all disabled by the wreck of our own spars that had all fallen on this side

side. This produced a cessation of our fire, and the enemy took this time to ask us, if we had surrendered? The *Leander* was now totally ungovernable, not having a thing standing, but the battered remains of the fore and main-masts and the bowsprit, her hull cut to pieces, and the decks full of killed and wounded; and perceiving the enemy, who had only lost his mizen-top-mast, approaching to place himself athwart our stern; in this defenceless situation, I asked captain Berry if he thought we could do more? He co-incided with me that further resistance was vain and impracticable; and, indeed, all hope of success having for some time vanished, I therefore now directed an answer to be given in the affirmative, and the enemy soon after took possession of his majesty's ship.

I cannot conclude this account without assuring how much advantage his majesty's service derived from this action from the gallantry and activity of capt. Berry of the *Vanguard*: I should also be wanting in justice, if I did not bear testimony to the steady bravery of the officers and seamen of the *Leander*, in this hard contest, which, though unsuccessful in its termination, will still, I trust, entitle them to the approbation of their country. The enemy proved to be the *Generoux*, of 14 guns, commanded by M. Lejoille, chef de division, who had escaped from the action of the 1st of August, and, being the rearmost of the French line, had received little or no share of it, having on board 900 men, about 100 of whom we found had been killed in the present contest, and 188 wounded. I inclose a list of the loss in killed and wounded

in the *Leander*, and have the honour to be, &c.

THOMAS THOMPSON.

A Return of Officers and Men killed and wounded on board his Majesty's Ship *Leander*, on the 19th of August, 1798.

Officers killed—Mr. P. Downs, midshipman; Mr. Gibson, midshipman of the *Caroline*; Mr. Edward Haddon, midshipman.

Twenty-four seamen killed.

Marines killed—Serjeant Dair, and 7 privates.

Total—; officers, 24 seamen, 1 serjeant, 7 marines, killed.

Officers wounded—capt. Thompson, badly; lieutenant Taylor; lieutenant Swiney; Mr. Lee, master; Mr. Mathias, boatswain, badly; Mr. Lacky, master's-mate; Mr. Nailor, midshipman.

Forty-one seamen, 9 marines.

Total—7 officers, 41 seamen, 9 marines, wounded.

THOMAS THOMPSON.

Admiralty Office, November 23.

Letters, of which the following are extract and copy, have been received at this office.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Samuel Hood, of his Majesty's Ship *Zealous*, to Rear-Admiral Lord Nelson, K. B. dated off Alexandria, Sept. 19, 1798.

I should have dispatched the *Emerald* to you on the 2d instant, agreeably to your orders; but knowing the French had possession of Damietta, also having information they had some vessels likely to sail from thence, I directed captain Hope, in the *Alcmene*, to proceed off the place with the *Fortune* polacre, and endeavour to destroy any vessels he might fall in with, that

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were belonging to or assisting the enemy.

On the 2d instant, his majesty's ships Sea-horse and Emerald chased in shore, where she anchored near the town of the Arabs, the French gun-boat (*acifé*) L'Anemone, commanded by enseigne de vaisseau Garbon, of 4 guns and 62 men, having on board general Camin, and citoyen Valette, aide-de-camp to general Buonaparte, with dispatches from Toulon, which place they left the 27th of July, and Malta the 26th August. On the approach of the boats of our ship, she fired on them, cut her cable, and ran in shore into the breakers. General Camin and aide-de-camp Valette, having landed with the dispatches, and whole of the crew, were immediately attacked by the Arabs. The two former, and some others, making resistance, were killed, and all the rest stripped of their clothes. Her commander and a few of the men, about seven, made their escape naked to the beach, where our boats had by this time arrived, and begged on their knees to be saved. I am happy in saying the humanity of our people extended so far as to swim on shore with lines and small casks to save them, which they fortunately effected. Amongst these was particularly distinguished a young gentleman, midshipman of the Emerald, who brought off the commander, Garbon, at the hazard of his own life, through the surf.

Allemene, off Damietta, Sept. 21.

SIR,

I have the honour of informing you that I arrived yesterday off Damietta, and, pursuant to your orders, cut out all the vessels that were anchored in that road, being eight in number, loaded with wine and

other necessities for the French army.

I am, &c.

GEORGE HOPE.

To Samuel Hood, esq. captain of his majesty's ship Zealous, &c. &c.

[This gazette also contains an account of the destruction of an armed lugger, and the capture of her consort, La Fouine, of 8 guns and 26 men, by his majesty's sloop Sylph, capt. White;—also of the capture of L'Entreprise, French privateer lugger, mounting 12 swivels, with muskets, pistols, swords, half-pikes, &c. by his majesty's cutter the George, lieut. Patey.]

30. Was observed as a day of public thanksgiving for the late great naval victory.

Plymouth, Nov. 25.

Extract of a Letter received by Vice-Admiral Kingmill, from a Gentleman residing near Dunfanaghy.

I feel much concern at being obliged to give you the melancholy information of the loss of the Margate tender, with all her crew (25 in number), on this coast in the late violent storm. On Saturday night last, in a dreadful gale of wind at N. W. about nine o'clock, a gun was heard, supposed to be from a vessel in distress; and soon after a brig was driven upon a ridge that runs out from the main land to the island of Ennithorin, and almost instantly went to pieces, as I believe this place is one of the most dangerous for a vessel to touch upon in any weather. The wreck was so complete, that, when I got to the shore the next morning, the stern of the vessel was lying a considerable distance from the wreck of the ship, and the whole altogether broken into different parts. From a piece of paper taken up along

along the shore only can it be known what the vessel was. One paper mentions the Margaret tender, John Pollexfen, lieutenant and commander; Colin Rofs, master and commander: it seems to be a return of the men on board. The bodies of nine men and one woman have been driven on shore, and buried here: scarcely any thing from the wreck has been saved: should any thing more be found, I shall write again.

I am, sir, &c.

WYB OLPHERT.

Manchester, Nov. 26. A coach-driver, late last night (near the hour of twelve), drove his vehicle into our river, near the Old Bridge, for the purpose of washing; when, the current running strong, the horses were soon driven into the centre of the stream, forced under one of the arches, and in that state (too shocking almost to conceive) they swam, with the man on the box, through Blackfriars-bridge, fighting and struggling for their lives till one in the morning. The poor fellow, in his endeavours, had entangled his legs in the reins; but from them he extricated himself with a knife; when, fortunately coming nearly in contact with a dyer's flat, he, by an astonishing effort, jumped from the box on the same, where he lay several minutes in a state of insensibility. The horse, after swimming about the river some time, followed their master to the flat, and attempted to raise their fore-feet upon it: the poor man, with the little strength he had left, held up the head of one of the creatures, till, with a convulsive groan, it expired in his arms. From the active assistance of several persons, attracted by the cries of the coachman, they had so far succeeded in securing the other horse as to ex-

tricate him from the reins, and had got him nearly half up Mrs. Duxbury's steps, when, owing to the tempestuousness of the night, he slipped from their holds, and again plunged into the river; after which nothing more was seen of him. Happy would it have been had the calamity ended here: curiosity (early in the morning following) called crowds of people together, to see the bodies of the horses floating; among others a group of nine or ten women and children very incautiously got together on a dyer's stage, hanging over the river near the New Bridge; when, shocking to relate! the bottom of the stage gave way, and they were all in an instant precipitated into the river. Three were recovered before life was gone; the strength of the current rendered every endeavour to save the others ineffectual, and they were all swept away! On how slender a thread does human life hang! the insecurity of these stages, from the number of years they have been erected, renders it a matter of astonishment that even an individual will trust his person thereon. The following are the names of the unfortunate sufferers: miss Martha Rhodes, miss Anna Reed, miss Jane Holliday; Ellen Neild, Sarah Petty (Mrs. Duxbury's servants), and Richard Boardman. A woman and her child are also said to have perished. A boy was saved, and fetched out by a dyer's dog. The sagacious animal returned for a woman, but, alas! he was too late.

29. A grand match of ploughing against time was lately performed in Windsor great park, between the oxen belonging to his majesty, and those of lord Somerville, the president of the board of agriculture, which his lordship had brought, (K 2) together

together with his plough, from Somersetshire. Half an acre of ground being measured, lord Somerville's oxen, four in the plough, started first, and performed the task in an hour and twenty minutes. The machine went over two furrows at a time. His majesty's oxen were then put to the plough, six in number; but lost the match by forty minutes. Among other spectators of distinction, were the duke of Clarence and prince Ernest.

DECEMBER.

Admiralty Office, Dec. 1, 1798.

This gazette contains an account of the capture of L'Hirondelle, of 20 guns and 50 men, by his majesty's ship Ambuscade.

[This gazette likewise contains two orders in council, dated the 28th ult. for prolonging for six months, from the 10th and 16th instant, the prohibition of the exportation of lignum vitæ and military stores.]

3. L'Aigle, of 38 guns, lately lost in the Mediterranean, was going at the rate of thirteen knots an hour, when she struck on a rock on the coast of Barbary. The violence of the shock threw several officers and others from their beds, and carried all the masts by the board. The night was extremely dark; the sea, which was high and increasing, poured in in all directions upon our people, who, though for some time with scarce a prospect of deliverance, yet, to a man, providentially reached the shore, by means of spars, casks, &c. As soon as the dawn broke, captain Tyler perceived that the ship, though completely a wreck, had not gone to pieces; he, therefore, to prevent her being of any use to the enemy, burned her to the water's

edge; at which the bey, who shortly after sent for our people, expressed much displeasure, saying the wreck was his property; but an assurance from captain Tyler, that he acted in conformity to his orders, and an acquiescence from the desire of the bey to give him such things as he might be able to recover from the wreck, perfectly reconciled him. His people, however, took a liking to each of the watches, and a few other things our poor fellows possessed; and, by imperative requests, obtained from them all they could give away.

Admiralty Office, Dec. 4.

This gazette contains a letter from captain Stopford, of the Phaëton, stating, that he had captured a French brig privateer called La Resolue, mounting 18 guns, and carrying 70 men, as she was returning from a cruise, in which she had captured an English merchant ship called the General Wolfe, and an American sloop; which latter was re-captured by the Stag.

6. Yesterday a general court was held at the East India house, at the requisition of certain proprietors, for the purpose of re-considering a resolution of the court of directors for granting a pension of 1500l. to lord Hobart, and which resolution was negatived by the last general court.

The letter convening the court having been read,

Sir John Hippeley took a review of the proceedings of the last court, when an unanimous resolution of the directors was negatived. He agreed that the general court ought to be a great constitutional check upon the executive body, but it ought not to be improperly exerted. Sir John then called for a variety of documents, which having been read, he proceeded to expatiate

expatiate on the general merits of lord Hobart, and more particularly that part of his government which went to expedite the expedition to the Manillas, and his subsequent countermand of the movements of a force which might have left the coast of Coromandel in a defenceless state—This was the act of a great statesman; and, had it been the only feature of his character, well entitled him to the protection of the company. His lordship also, during the conduct of the treaty with the sister country, had been of great service to the company, by bringing a not very popular measure to a happy conclusion—Much had been said of disputes in India—Were such disputes without a precedent? Had not lord Macartney been obliged to undergo a similar warfare with the nabob? The fact was too notorious; and it was not perhaps the worst compliment which could be paid to a governor, that he was not upon the best terms with the durbar. It had been said, that as lord Hobart had been superseded by government, let government recompense him; but he could never separate the interests of the board of controul and the India company. The president was not acting as merely a king's minister; his acts were those of the company, and could not be disconnected. After dwelling upon the different addresses to his lordship from India, sir John concluded with moving, 'that this court doth approve and confirm the resolution of the court of directors of 18th August last, whereby a pension of 1500l. is granted to lord Hobart, payable out of the territorial revenues in India, for the period of this company's exclusive charter, if he shall so long live, from the time of his

quitting the government of Madras."

Mr. Watson seconded the motion.

The chairman, in behalf of the court of directors, thought himself called upon to deliver a plain tale—truth demanded no ornament—He then related in clear and concise terms the hardships which lord Hobart experienced in being deprived of the succession to the government-general. In speaking highly of lord Hobart, he did not mean to give unqualified approbation; it was in the nature of man to err. In stating why his lordship was recalled, he must take very delicate and tender ground. The death of the nabob of Arcot induced his lordship to endeavour to place that rich and beautiful country under the protection of the company. Had he succeeded, no recompense would have been too great; he however failed, and became involved in a dispute with the government-general; the mind of the reigning prince of course became alienated to his lordship. Under these circumstances, it might not have been so polite to send his lordship to Bengal. Very fortunately for this country, the doctrine of pensions and rewards had not exploded; the system was good in itself; it was only the abuse of it that was to be guarded against; the whole grant could not be fairly reckoned at more than fifteen thousand pounds, the produce of a single year's possession of the government-general.

Mr. Inglis, in very forcible and able terms, supported the motion.

Sir Francis Baring stated, that the gentlemen on by rotation were equally anxious to have the merits of the noble lord rewarded as the present court of directors.

Mr. Bensley gave his testimony as to the care and deliberation with which the court of directors had proceeded in their recommendation of lord Hobart to the proprietors; it was not the mere whim of the moment, but the unanimous result of a discussion not of an hour, but of days and weeks.

Mr. Chisholme would not have intruded, had not his regard for the noble lord induced him to take a long journey, in order that he might not give a silent vote. Had his lordship, during his government, done nothing else but suppress usurious loans, he would have been entitled to the highest rewards: the only objection he had to the proposed pension was, that it was too small.

Mr. Moore said, that, however unpleasant it might be to oppose a personal motion, he must yet do his duty; the personal character of lord Hobart was out of the question: his merits might be great, but that room was not the place to reward them in. Whatever might be the immense property of the noble mover, he should resist his doctrine, that it gave him any claim over the property of others; written documents had been produced, which must ever outweigh oral compliments. The recall of lord Hobart was a breach of faith upon the part of the minister—the whole India stock would not make good all his breaches of this kind—(a cry of order)—all particular discussions must lead to general ones; as one of the old school, he must talk a little about pensions previous to the establishment of the board of controul. It was not to the modern itinerants; who went backward and forward, like buckets, to bring something with them, we were to look. Mr. Verelst called

for no pension, yet he fell a sacrifice to poverty: he lay under a blue marble at Minster, in the isle of Thanet, unlamented and forgotten. Mr. Cartier, and Mr. Verelst, the saviour of India, had no other reward but integrity. It had been said by an hon. director, that the board of controul had saved India; this he would deny, the reverse was the fact—(a cry of order)—the pension list amounted, since 81, to 26,000*l.*—all springing from a source of happy controul. Courts of judicature were added; the Irish establishment was transferred to Leadenhall-street; pension was the pass-word of supercession; the universal panacea for degraded honour: the minister had ways and means to reward lord Hobart, without rendering him an imbecile. There was a vacancy in the board of controul; it was filled up by a young man of the name of Dundas, no doubt for services to be rendered. Why not give lord Hobart this place? If the pension was brought forward for services rendered, and not for a ministerial breach of faith, he would be the first to second it; but the fact was, the company's funds did not warrant so lavish an expenditure. On the other side of the water, it should appear by the Calcutta gazette, that the faith and credit of the company were at public auction. But to return to the good actions of the board of controul—an attempt to coerce the British army; it was the appeal of the proprietary which alone saved that army. What was the next good thing the board did? Why, large salaries presented to its members for what was originally to be done without fee or reward.—Then a pension to lord Macartney of 1500*l.* For what? Services rendered? No, it was a claim for 16,000*l.*

16,000*l.* arrear of salary. Then came general Sloper—then general Dalling: but being heartily tried of so hateful a subject, he should conclude with moving to adjourn.

The chairman explained, and accounted for the magnitude of the pension list, 2000*l.* of which went to military regulations of officers retiring; 9000*l.* were granted by the court to marquis Cornwallis and Mr. Hastings; the remaining part was appropriated to support the declining years of retiring servants, and to cheer the widows and fatherless. The company's affairs were infinitely superior to his most sanguine expectations. All the payments for the two last years had been anticipated. The treasuries in China and Bengal were so well supplied, as not to demand any increase of capital. For this state of prosperity, the company was indebted to the exertions of the late chairman, Mr. Inglis.

Mr. Durand said, that the debate had taken a most unprecedented turn; the mover had blended merits and injuries most strangely. Before he proceeded, he must ask a question of law relative to the presumed compact with lord Hobart. Was that compact consistent with the charter? (a cry of question.)—It was no use, Mr. Durand observed, to call for question till he had his say.

The chairman observed, . . . question could be put to counsel without the consent of the court.

Sir John Hippesley replied, and, after a few smart and pleasant hits at Mr. Moore, adverted to the oath taken by lord Hobart, as to the extent of his property.

Mr. alderman Lushington animadverted on the inconsistency of the mover for the adjournment, which would fix a second injury

upon the noble lord, whose merits he had professed to admire. The honourable alderman dwelt with considerable energy on the good effects resulting from rewards bestowed on great and distinguished merit.

Mr. Scott having had the honour to sit in the chair when lord Hobart was recalled, hoped the court would indulge him with a few words in favour of the original motion. The appointment was that of the court of directors; so was the recall; in both which they went in unison with the board of controul. He thought him the fittest man in the three kingdoms to succeed lord Teinmouth: his recall was a cruel act of political expediency. He was one of the most upright and able men that ever went to India; he planned with judgment, and executed with promptitude.

The motion for an adjournment not having been seconded, the original question was put, and carried by a very large majority.

Sir John Hippesley then moved the thanks of the court to lord Hobart, which, after a few words from Mr. Moore, passed unanimously; and the court, at half past three, adjourned *fine die*.

8. The following brigade orders were yesterday issued from the War-office, dated Dec. 7, 1798, by command of his royal highness the duke of York:

In order to prepare a proportion of the foot guards for service, it is his majesty's pleasure that the following arrangements shall be forthwith carried into execution.

The grenadier companies of the three regiments of foot guards to be completed to 120 rank and file each.

The third battalion of the first regiment to be brought from
(K 4) Ireland,

Ireland, and to be completed to 120 rank and file each company.

The battalions of the Coldstream and third regiments to be completed to the same establishment; and draughts for the above purpose are to be made from those regiments in England, and to hold themselves in immediate readiness to proceed to Ireland.

FREDERICK, F. M.

Commander in Chief.

His majesty having signified his pleasure that all prisoners of war shall be under stoppages during the time they are detained by government in their captivity, his royal highness the duke of Gloucester orders that the regulation for deduction from their pay be conform'd with. From a sergeant, corporal, drummer, private, each 6^d. per day, to commence the 24th of February to the 24th of December, for the number of men who shall have been in captivity during that period; and that similar accounts be transmitted to the war-office half yearly, as soon after the 24th of June and 24th of December as they can be prepared.

The gazette of Dec. 8. contains the following notice:—
 "The *nom capt.* Middleton, flat-boat, having fallen in with the *nom capt.* *St. John*, in chase of a cutter, captured, after she had fired and shot, and a cutter, overboard."

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And also the following:
sels, captured, re-captured
stroyed, by the Flora and Ca.
the *Nosira Senhora de Monte*, &c.
tuguese brig, re-taken by the *Flora*;
the Spanish packet *Grimaldi*, of 2

guns, and 28 men, captured by the Flora; La Carlota, Spanish ship, of 19 men, captured by the Flora; the French lugger privateer L'Esperance, of 1 gun, with muskets, and 38 men, destroyed by the Caroline's boats; the French ship polacre Le Baret, of 10 guns, and 77 men, captured by the Caroline and Flora.

[This gazette also contains an account of the capture of a small French cutter called *La Fulminante*, by *L'Espoir*, capt. Bland.]

10. The son of Mr. Israel, innkeeper, of Maiden-street, White-chapel, put an end to his existence, by shooting himself through the head with a loaded pistol. He had been on the Exchange that day with his father; and after dinner, when his mother and three sisters had left the room, he informed his father that he was very much in love with a young lady, his cousin, whom he wished to marry, and solicited his father to give his consent, and set him up in business. His father expressed his surprise that such a thought should come into his head, he be-

fifteen years of age;
 in what he had
 led, that if his father
 ply with his request,
 t an end to his exist-
 which Mr. Israel de-
 leave the room, and
 y on what he had said,
 nently pulled a pistol
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On searching him, another idol was found in his

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The governor informed the proprietors that the court of directors had thought proper to convene a general court of proprietors for the purpose of laying before them two matters for their approbation. The first was respecting the annual advance of 2,000,000*l.* to government on the land and malt-tax. The former of those taxes having been disposed of, it was necessary to substitute some other security for the advance:—for this purpose the chancellor of the exchequer had applied for the usual advance to be made on the duties to be imposed on malt, tobacco, snuff, and sugar. The amount of these duties would be about 2,425,000*l.* being 425,000*l.* more than the amount of the land-tax. The court of directors had considered of the application, and were of opinion they were competent to make the advance of 2,000,000*l.* on the proposed duties in lieu of the land tax; but wished in the first place to have the sanction of a court of proprietors.

The other matter related to the payment of the exchequer bills issued last year, payable out of the loan, and, at the request of the chancellor of the exchequer, protracted to be paid out of the first money to be raised in the present year. The chancellor of the exchequer had applied for a further delay, by a letter which he begged leave to read: it was as follows:

To the Governor of the Bank of England.

Downing-street, Nov. 12, 1798.

SIR,

I have to request the favour of you to represent to your court of directors, that it will be a material accommodation to the public service if they should think proper to accept fresh exchequer bills in exchange for those issued for payment

of the 3,000,000*l.* advanced for the service of the present year; and if they see no objection, I should wish to propose, that the exchequer bills now to be issued may be made payable at such times as shall be fixed, after the expiration of twelve months.

I have the honour to be, sir,
your most humble and
obedient servant,
WILLIAM PITT.

The governor said, the court of directors had taken this letter into their consideration, and had come to the following resolution:

“Resolved, that the above letter be laid before a general court; and that the governor be authorised to inform the proprietors, that they see no objection to continuing the loan of 3,000,000*l.* to government, which was to have been received out of the money raised this year, on fresh exchequer bills, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, if the general court shall approve thereof.”

A proprietor observed, that the first matter proposed to the general court appeared to him rather premature; for he had not heard, or learned from the public newspapers, that the taxes, on which the 2,000,000*l.* were to be advanced, had received the assent of parliament. It was evident, therefore, that the bank would be advancing money on a non-entity.—If he was wrong, and the bill had passed, he begged to be set right.

The governor stated, that the taxes had been voted in a committee of ways and means, and the bill was in its progress, with a clause empowering the bank of England to make advances.

The same gentleman again, observed, that, if the bill should eventually not be agreed to, in that case
this

this advance would be premature. He did not see how the chancellor of the exchequer could be so much in want of money as to make such an early application to the bank necessary. It would have been better if he had borrowed 6,000,000*l.* the other day instead of 3,000,000*l.* than to have been obliged to request an advance from the bank before the bill to secure the repayment of it was passed. He conceived it would be much better to wait till the bill had received the assent of parliament.

One of the directors said it was not intended that the money should be advanced till the bill was passed, and the royal assent given, and the exchequer bills issued.

Some slight altercation arose between two of the proprietors, in consequence of one of them observing, that it was a waste of time to discuss the propriety of the resolution of the directors; and that it ought to be immediately approved.

The other conceived such an observation a breach of decorum, and highly improper, and he hoped it would be censured by the court of directors.

After a few words the matter dropped to the ground.

The question was then put that "This court do agree with and confirm the resolution of the court of directors," and was passed almost unanimously.

Mr. Hoare remarked, that the income bill now pending in parliament contained what was likely to be highly prejudicial to the company of the bank of England and its charter, since they might be obliged to pay both in their corporate and individual capacities. He hoped this had not escaped the observation of the governor and directors, and that they would adopt

such means as were necessary to obviate the mischiefs to which he alluded.

The governor replied, that the terms of the schedule in the bill had struck him as likely to operate to the injury of the company; but he had no doubt the clause containing it would be amended, and the objectionable parts done away in such a manner, that the dividends would not be liable to the tax, which would only be paid by the proprietors in their individual capacity. The court immediately adjourned.

18. The most noble the marquis of Abercorn, who laid his damages at 20,000*l.* against captain Copley, for crim. con. with the marchioness, obtained a verdict in the sheriff's court for 10,000*l.* The defendant had previously suffered judgment to go by default.

Admiralty Office, Dec. 15.

This gazette contains an account of the capture of a French lugger privateer, called the Calaisien, of 4 guns, and 18 men, by the Badger cutter, capt. Ridge.

19. Yesterday the lord mayor took the chair at twelve. The court was well attended.

Mr. Waithman rose, and moved the following question, Mr. Lambe seconded the motions, and Mr. Hodgson and Mr. Simmons supported them.

1st, Resolved, that this court have before declared it as their opinion, "that all taxes ought to be equitably and proportionably levied, according to the property of individuals, more especially towards supporting a war, which has for its principal object the preservation of property," which opinion they do now confirm, and which they conceive must be universally assented to.

2d, Resolved, that this court do approve the principle of the bill now depending in parliament, for a tax upon income.

3d, Resolved, that, in the opinion of this court, the bill now pending in parliament, by which it is proposed to tax the precarious and fluctuating income arising from the labour and industry of persons in trade, professions, &c. in the same proportion as the permanent annual income proceeding from landed and funded property, is most partial, cruel, and oppressive.

4th, Resolved, that the said bill proposes to establish an inquisitorial power unknown in this country, inconsistent with the principles of the British constitution, and repugnant to the feelings of Englishmen.

Alderman Le Mesurier moved the previous question upon all the motions, which, after a long debate, was negatived. A further debate ensued upon the main questions.

Mr. Alderman Lushington moved the court to agree with him in his opinion (an opinion already delivered in the house of commons) that the tax should not attach under 80l. per annum, and proceed progressively to 400l.—The alderman supported his motion in a long and elegant speech, and earnestly entreated the court to agree to the proposition.

After a fresh debate, in which it was stated by Mr. Waithman, Mr. Griffiths, Mr. Hodgson, and others, that they could see no reason why the progression should not go on to 10,000l. as well as 400l. and they stated their reasons for the argument; in fine, the alderman's motion was lost, and the main question was put and carried.

22. The gazette contains an account of the capture, by captain

Jenkins of the Ambuscade, of the letter of marque Faucon, from Guadaloupe, bound to Bordeaux, loaded with sugar, coffee, &c. She is near two hundred tons, has been 46 days on her passage, and had taken nothing; and also of the capture of L'Adolphe French privateer, of 6 guns and 42 men; and the destruction of another French privateer, by driving her on shore, by his majesty's sloop El Corso, captain Boger.

Downing-street, Dec. 23, 1798.

Captain Gifford, first aide-de-camp to general the hon. Charles Stuart, arrived this afternoon at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, with a dispatch from the general, of which the following is a copy.

Ciudadella, Nov. 18, 1798.

SIR,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that his majesty's forces are in possession of the island of Minorca, without having sustained the loss of a single man.

As neither commodore Duckworth nor myself could procure any useful information relative to the object of the expedition at Gibraltar, it was judged advisable to dispatch the Peterell sloop of war to cruise off the harbour of Mahon for intelligence; where, after remaining a few days, she joined the fleet near the Colombrites, without having made any essential discovery. So circumstanced, it was agreed to attempt a descent in the bay of Addaya; and the wind proving favorable on the 7th inst. a feint was made by the line of battle ships at Fornelles, and boats were assembled for that purpose under the direction of capt. Bowen, capt. Polden, and capt. Presland. Previous to the landing of the troops,

troops, a small battery at the entrance of the bay was evacuated, the magazine blown up, the guns spiked, and shortly after the first division, consisting of eight hundred men, was on shore. A considerable explosion to the westward indicated that the Spaniards had also abandoned the works at Fornelles. Nearly at the same moment 2000 of the enemy's troops approached in several different directions, and threatened to surround this considerable force, but were repulsed with some loss on the left, while the guns of the Argo checked a similar attempt on the right flank, and the post was maintained until the debarkation of the different divisions afforded the means of establishing a position, from whence the enemy's troops would have been attacked with considerable advantage, had they not retired in the beginning of the night.

The strength of the ground, the passes, and the badness of the roads in Minorca, are scarcely to be equalled in the most mountainous parts of Europe; and what increased the difficulty of advancing upon this occasion, was the dearth of intelligence; for although near 100 deserters had come in from the Swiss regiments, and affirmed that the remaining force upon the island exceeded 4000 men, no particular account of the enemy's movements was obtained. Under this uncertainty it was for a few minutes doubtful what measure to pursue, but as quickly determined to proceed by a forced march to Mercadal, and thereby separate the enemy's force by possessing the essential pass, in the first instance, and from thence advancing upon his principal communications to either extremity of the island, justly depending upon commodore Duck-

worth's zeal and exertions to forward from Addaya and Fornelles such supplies of provisions and ordnance stores as might favour subsequent operations.

To effect this object, col. Graham was sent with 600 men, and by great exertion arrived at Mercadal a very few hours after the main force of the enemy had marched towards Ciudadella, making several officers and soldiers prisoners, seizing various small magazines, and establishing his corps in the front of the village.

The persevering labour of 250 seamen, under the direction of lieutenant Buchanan, during the night, having greatly assisted the artillery in forwarding the battalion guns, the army arrived at Mercadal on the 9th, where, learning that Mahon was nearly evacuated, a disposition was instantly made to operate with the whole force in that direction, and colonel Paget detached under this movement with 300 men to take possession of the town: upon his arrival, he summoned fort Charles to surrender, and made the lieutenant-governor of the island, a colonel of artillery, and 160 men, prisoners of war, removed the boom obstructing the entrance of the harbour, and gave free passage to the *Cormorant* and *Aurora* frigates, which were previously sent by commodore Duckworth to make a diversion off that port. But these were not the only advantages immediately resulting from this movement; it favoured desertion, intercepted all stragglers, and enabled the different departments of the army to procure beasts of burden for the further progress of his majesty's arms.

Having ascertained that the enemy's troops were throwing up works and entrenching themselves
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in front of Ciudadella, it was resolved to force their position on the night of the 13th instant; and, preparatory to this attempt, col. Paget with 200 men was withdrawn from Mahon; colonel Moncrief sent forward with the detachment to Ferarias; three light twelve-pounders and five and a half inch howitzers, and 90 marines landed from the fleet; when, in consequence of its having been communicated to commodore Duckworth, that four ships, supposed of the line, were seen between Majorca and Minorca, steering towards the last mentioned island, he decided to pursue them, requested that the seamen and marines might re-embark, and signified his determination of proceeding with all the armed transports to sea; but weighing the serious consequences which would result to the army from the smallest delay on the one hand, and the advantages to be reasonably expected from a spirited attack on the other, it was thought advisable to retain them with the army; and, on the 12th instant, the whole force marched to Alpiuz, and from thence proceeded on the 13th to Júpia, colonel Moncrief's detachment moving in a parallel line on the Ferarias road to Mala Garaba. These precautions, and the appearance of two columns approaching the town, induced the enemy to retire from their half-constructed defences within the walls of Ciudadella; and in the evening of the same day, a small detachment under captain Muter was sent to take possession of the Torre den Quart, whereby the army was enabled to advance on the 14th, apparently in three columns, upon Kane's, the Ferarias, and Fornelles roads, to the investment of the town at day-break, occupying ground covered

by the position the enemy had relinquished: thus stationed, in want of heavy artillery, and every article necessary for a siege, it was judged expedient to summon the governor of Minorca to surrender; and the preliminary articles were immediately considered; but doubts arising on the part of the enemy, whether the investing force was superior in number to the garrison, two batteries of three twelve-pounders, and three five and a half inch howitzers were erected in the course of the following night within eight hundred yards of the place, and at day-break the main body of the troops formed in order of battle considerably to the right of Kane's road, leaving the picquets to communicate between them and col. Moncrief's post. This line, partly real and partly imaginary, extended four miles in front of the enemy's batteries, from whence two eighteen pound shot were immediately fired at the troops; but a timely parley, and a distant appearance of the squadron, occasioned the cessation of hostilities, and renewed a negotiation, which, through the address of major-general sir James St. Clair Erskine, terminated in the annexed capitulation.

Four weeks' salt provisions for the garrison, besides the inclosed list of ordnance stores, were found in the town of Ciudadella.

The assistance received from commodore Duckworth, in forwarding the light artillery and provisions, greatly facilitated the rapid movements of the army; and I am happy in the opportunity of declaring my obligations to lord Mark Kerr and captain Caulfield for the supplies they sent from Mahon, and their exertions to land two mortars, which, in the event of further resistance, might have proved of the utmost

utmost importance in securing the army, or compelling the enemy to surrender.

The support I have experienced from major-general sir James St. Clair Erskine, brigadiers general Stuart and Oakes, the exertion of lieutenant-colonel Stewart, my adjutant-general, the zeal, spirit, and perseverance of both the officers and men of the different regiments under my command, have eminently contributed to the success of the expedition, and authorize me to represent their services as highly deserving his majesty's most gracious approbation.

Captain Gifford, my first aide-de-camp, who is perfectly acquainted with every circumstance concerning the capitulation of Ciudadella, and the reduction of the island of Minorca, will have the honour to deliver this dispatch.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CHA. STEWART.

To the right honourable
Henry Dundas.

TERMS OF CAPITULATION,

Demanded for the Surrender of the Fortress of Ciudadella to the Arms of his Britannic Majesty.

I. The garrison shall not be considered as prisoners of war, but shall march out free, with their arms, drums beating, colours flying, with twelve rounds of cartridge per man.—Answer. The town and fortress of Ciudadella, and the fort of St. Nicholas, together with all artillery, ammunition, stores, provisions, or effects, the property of his most Catholic majesty, shall be surrendered to his Britannic majesty's arms, and the gate of Mahon, and the fort of St. Nicholas, shall be delivered up to the British army to-morrow at noon.

II. They shall be preceded by

four brass four-pounders and two two-inch howitzers, with lighted matches, and twelve rounds for each.—Answer. The garrison shall march out as proposed in the first and second articles, but the guns must be left with the artillery.

III. The said garrison shall be sent with all due convenience to Spain, at the expense of his Britannic majesty, to one of the nearest ports of the peninsula, excepting the first battalion of the Swiss regiment of Yann, and the detachment of the dragoons of Numancia, with their horses and furniture, who shall be sent to Majorca, as belonging to corps which garrison that island.—Answer. The garrison shall be conveyed to the nearest port of his most Catholic majesty.

IV. The officers in this island and fortress shall keep their arms, horses, and equipage, with the funds of their regiments, and shall be permitted to go to Mahon, for the purpose of bringing away their families, and removing or disposing of their property there.—Answer. Admitted, they paying their just debts; and the officers who have occasion to go to Mahon, to bring away their families, or dispose of their property, will have passports on applying to the British commander in chief.

V. The officers of the war department, the revenue, and marine, together with the persons employed in every branch thereof, shall be permitted to follow the garrison, and are to be included in the articles III. IV. and V.—Answer. Admitted.

VI. Whatever officers and troops have been made prisoners in Mahon, or other parts of the island, since the 7th instant, are comprehended in the above five articles.—

Answer.

Answer. People who have already surrendered cannot be included in the above capitulation.

VII. The deserters from this army who have given themselves up to the protection of his Britannic majesty since the said 7th instant, shall be restored to our army.—Answer. Refused.

VIII. Beasts of burden, both great and small, shall be granted at the ordinary prices, for those who may be desirous of going to Mahon.—Answer. Admitted.

IX. During the time the garrison may remain in this island, their necessary wants shall be supplied at the expense of Spain.—Answer. There will be no obstacle to the garrison's being supplied with provisions by its own officers while it remains, which will be as short a time as possible, and be regulated by the commander in chief.

X. The sick and wounded shall remain in the hospitals; and their treatment be at the expense of their regiments.—Answer. Admitted.

XI. The inhabitants of this island shall be allowed to continue in the free exercise of their religion, enjoying peaceably the revenues, property, and privileges which they possess and enjoy at present.

XII. The episcopal see of the island shall remain established in it, according to the bull for its new creation, enjoying the honours, authority, and rents, belonging to the bishopric, and subsisting with its ecclesiastical chapter and as suffragan to the archbishop of Valencia.

XIII. The universities (or corporations) of the island shall be maintained in the enjoyment of the particular privileges and franchises which have been granted to them by the ancient kings of Spain, as they now possess them, and as they

have been allowed to them in the treaties which have taken place as often as this island has passed from one dominion to another.

Answer. XI. XII. XIII. are articles which do not properly belong to this capitulation, but of course due care will be taken to secure the peaceable inhabitants in the enjoyment of their religion and property.

XIV. The merchant-ship named *Experiencia*, which is in Mahon, coming from Smyrna, and belonging to the consulate of Cadiz, and its cargo, shall remain free, and a passport be granted for its safe conduct to Spain.—Answer. Refused.

XV. Commissioners will be appointed on both sides to settle the detail of the execution of this treaty; and to deliver and receive all stores, &c. the property of his most catholic majesty.

(Signed.) CHARLES STUART,
General and Commander in Chief.

J. T. DUCKWORTH,
Commodore and naval Commander
in Chief.

JOAN NEPOMUCENO DE QUESADA.
Ciudadella, 15th November, 1798.

Return of Ordnance taken in the
Island of Minorca.

Camp opposite Ciudadella, Nov. 18.
1798.

Ciudadella and Fort St. Nicholas
—Five brass $3\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzers.
Brass ordnance, four 4-pounders;
mounted. Iron ordnance, six 18,
ten 12, eight 9, and two 6-pound-
ers; mounted.

Mahon — One 13 inch, three
brass $10\frac{3}{4}$ inch mortars; three brass
 $6\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzers. Iron ordnance,
fifteen 32, twelve 18, seventeen 12,
and three 6-pounders, mounted.
Three brass $8\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzers.
Brass ordnance, three 24, four 12-
pounders. Iron ordnance, two 24,
one 18, and five 12-pounders; dis-
mounted.

Lower

Lower Musquito — Iron ordnance, one 6-pounder; mounted.

Upper Musquito — Iron ordnance, three 9, two 6-pounders; mounted.

Calaucolins—Iron ordnance, four 12-pounders; mounted.

St. Teresa—Brass ordnance, four 12-pounders; mounted.

Fornelles—Iron ordnance, fourteen 18-pounders; mounted.

Pointa Prima—Iron ordnance, four 12-pounders; mounted.

Calacoufa—Iron ordnance, four 12-pounders; mounted.

Total—One 13, three 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch mortars; three 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, three 6 $\frac{1}{2}$, five 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzers; fifteen 32, five 24, thirty-three 18, fifty-two 12, eleven 9, eight 6, four 4-pounders. Return of the Ammunition and

Stores taken on the Island of Minorca.

Fifty 13, one hundred 10 $\frac{3}{4}$, one hundred and eighty 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, seventy-eight 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch shells.

One thousand nine hundred and eighty 32, three thousand one hundred and thirty-one 18, four thousand four hundred and sixty 12, one thousand four hundred and forty 9, one thousand four hundred and thirty-three 6, seven hundred and sixty-four 4-pound round shot.

Sixty-eight 32, three hundred and twenty 12-pound grape shot.

Forty-seven 32, sixty 18, one hundred and sixty-eight 12, six 9, forty-eight 6-pound double-headed shot.

Ninety-nine 4-pound round shot, fixed ammunition.

One hundred and forty-four hand-grenades.

Two hundred and seventy thousand musquet ball-cartridges.

Two thousand flints.

Six hundred and ninety-eight 18, one thousand and ten 12, one

hundred and sixty 9, two hundred and thirteen 6-pound cartridges, filled.

Eight hundred and twenty-one whole, and three half barrels of gunpowder.

HAYLORD FLAMINGHAM, Captain, commanding the Royal Artillery.

His Excellency General the Honourable Charles Stuart, Commander in Chief, &c. &c. &c.

Copy of an Embarkation Return delivered by His Excellency Don Juan Nepomuceno de Quesada, to His Excellency General the Honourable Charles Stuart, Commander in Chief of the British Forces in the island of Minorca.

Fortress of Ciudadella, in the island of Minorca.

General State of the Spanish Troops who are to embark for the Evacuation of this Island.

153 officers.

358 sergeants, drummers, and rank and file.

56 horses.

General staff 16, including 1 governor, 1 lieutenant-governor, 1 major-general, &c. &c. &c.

(Signed) PEDRO QUADRADO, Major-general.

Ciudadella, Nov. 17, 1798.

I certify the above to be a true copy; and that since the landing of the British forces, and previous to the surrender of Ciudadella on the 16th inst. nearly three hundred deserters have come over to the British army.

RD. STEWART, ag. gen.

N. B. The corps composing the Spanish force in this island are as follows; viz. regiment of Valentia, 3 battalions.—Swiss regiment of Ruttiman, 2 battalions.—Swiss regiment of Yann, 1 battalion.—A detachment

detachment of the dragoons of Numancia :—and a detachment of artillery.

Admiralty-office, Dec. 23, 1798.

Lieutenant Jones, of his majesty's ship *Leviathan*, arrived here this afternoon with a dispatch from admiral the earl of St. Vincent, to Mr. Nepean, of which the following is a copy :

Le Souverain, Gibraltar, Dec. 6, 1798.

SIR,

I inclose the copy of a letter from commodore Duckworth, with other documents relating to the conquest of the island of Minorca; upon which important event I request you will congratulate the lords commissioners of the admiralty.

Lieutenant Jones, first of the *Leviathan*, is the bearer of this dispatch, who, from the report of commodore Duckworth, and my own observation while my flag was on board that ship, is highly deserving their lordships' favour and protection.

I am, sir, &c. &c.

ST. VINCENT.

*Leviathan, off Fournelles, Minorca,
19th November, 1798.*

My Lord,

In pursuance of your lordship's instructions to me of the 18th and 20th of October, I proceeded with the ships under my orders, and the troops under the command of the honourable general Charles Stuart, to the rendezvous off the Colomбетtes; and after having been joined by his majesty's sloop *Peterell*, and the arrangements for landing had been completed, on the 5th in the afternoon I stood for Minorca, but in consequence of light winds I did not make that island till day-break on the 7th, then within five miles of the port of Fournelles; where finding the wind directly out of that harbour, and the enemy prepared

1798.

for our reception, I (having previously consulted the general) made the signal for captain Bowen, of the *Argo*, accompanied by the *Cormorant* and *Aurora*, to assist in covering the landing, to lead into the creek of Addaya, there not being water or space enough for the line of battle ships; which he executed in a most officer-like and judicious manner: and in hauling round the northern point, a battery of four 12-pounders fired one gun, but on seeing the broadside, the enemy left it, blowing up their magazines, and spiking the guns, when the transports were got in without damage, though there was scarcely room for stowing them in tiers. During this service, which was rapidly executed, the *Leviathan* and *Centaure* plied on and off Fournelles, to divert the attention of the enemy; but knowing an expeditious landing to be our greatest object, as soon as I observed the transports were nearly in the creek, I bore away, and anchored with the *Leviathan* and *Centaure* off its entrance, to see that service performed. One battalion was put on shore by eleven o'clock, and directly took the height, which proved fortunate, as the enemy very quickly appeared in two divisions, one of which was marching down towards the battery before mentioned, when I ordered the covering ships to commence a cannonade, which effectually checked their progress, and the general kept them at bay with the troops he had; and by six o'clock in the afternoon the whole were on shore, with eight 6-pounders, field-pieces, and eight days provisions, as also two howitzers. On the same evening, after ordering the *Cormorant* and *Aurora* to proceed off Port Mahon, with seven transports, to form a diversion, I got under weigh with the

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Leviathan and Centaur, and turned up to Fournelles with an intent to force the harbour; but on my entering the passage, I found the enemy had evacuated the forts, and the wind throwing out caused me to anchor, when I made the Centaur's signal (which was following me) to haul off, landed the marines of the Leviathan, took possession of two forts of four guns each, and one of six: but soon after the general requesting I would not enter this port, I ordered captain Digby to embark the marines, and to put to sea, and cruise under the command of captain Markham, who was employed in covering the port of Fournelles and Addaya, and preventing succour being thrown in, whilst my pendant was hoisted on board the Argo, where I continued two days, aiding and directing the necessary supplies for the army. In this I was ably assisted by Captain Bowen. During these two days I visited head-quarters to consult with the general; when it was decided, as the anchorage at Addaya was extremely hazardous, and the transports in hourly risk of being lost, to remove them to Fournelles, which was executed under cover of the Leviathan and Centaur. On the 12th, I ordered the Centaur off Ciudadella to prevent reinforcements being thrown in, and anchored the Leviathan at Fournelles, landed some twelve-pounder field-pieces and howitzers, the sailors drawing them up to the army, shifted my pendant to the Leviathan, and left the Argo at Addaya, ordering captain Bowen to continue there till all the dépôts were re-embarked and removed, which was effected that day. Late that evening I received information from the general, that four ships, supposed to be of the line, were seen between

Minorca and Majorca. In the middle of the night the general sent me another corroborating report from the look-out man, of the four ships seen being of the line. I instantly put to sea (though one-fifth of the crews were on shore) with two ships of the line, a forty-four, and three armed transports, and stood towards Ciudadella; when at daylight the next morning, that place bearing S. E. by S. eight or nine miles, five ships were seen from the mast-head standing directly down for Ciudadella. I instantly made the signal for a general chase, when I soon observed the enemy haul their wind for Majorca; but I continued the pursuit to prevent the possibility of their throwing in succour to Minorca; and at noon I discovered the enemy from the fore-yard to be four large frigates and a sloop of war; this latter keeping her wind, I made the Argo's signal to haul after her; and captain Bowen, by his letter of the 15th, informs me he took her at half past three that afternoon, and proved to be his majesty's ship Peterell, which had been captured the preceding forenoon by the squadron of frigates I was in chase of. For further particulars on that head I shall refer you to capt. Bowen's letter, where I am convinced you will observe with great concern the very harsh treatment the officers and crew of the Peterell met with when captured; and he has since added, that one man, who resisted the Spaniards plundering him of forty guineas, was murdered and thrown overboard. I continued the chase till eleven o'clock that night, when I was within three miles of the sternmost frigate; but finding the wind become light, I feared it would draw me too far from the island of Minorca; I therefore hail-

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ed the Centaur, and directed capt. Markham to pursue the enemy, steered directly for Ciudadella, which I made the subsequent afternoon (the 14th) with the Calcutta and Ulysses. The next morning (the 15th) at day-break, the Argo joined us off Ciudadella. Having had no communication from the general, I sent the first lieutenant, Mr. Jones, though a very hazardous night, in the ship's cutter, with a letter to the general, proposing to cannonade Ciudadella if it would facilitate his operations. In the morning of the 16th, lieutenant Jones returned with duplicates of two letters I had previously received by capt. Gifford, the general's aide-de-camp, acquainting me that he had summoned the town on the 14th, and that terms of capitulation were agreed upon on the 15th to surrender to his majesty's arms. When I went on shore, I signed the capitulation the general had made, on which fortunate event I most truly congratulate your lordship. The Centaur joined, not having been so fortunate as to capture either of the Spanish frigates, though within four miles of the sternmost; capt. Markham being apprehensive the continuance of the chase would carry him to a great distance from more essential service. From the 16th in the morning, when Fort Charles was put into our possession, and lord Mark Kerr in the Cormorant, with the Aurora, captain Caulfield, entered the port, those ships have been employed for the defence of the harbour, guarding the prisoners; and I have the pleasure to assure your lordship, in the performance of the various services incident to the movements I have stated, I cannot pass too high encomiums on the captains, officers, and seamen under my command.

From captains Poulden and Prefsland, agents of transports, I received every possible assistance in their departments; and when it was necessary I should proceed to sea to bring to action a reputed superior force, they shewed great spirit, and used every exertion to accompany me in their armed transports, as did lieutenant Simmonds; the other agent, in his. I must now beg leave to mention my first lieutenant, Mr. George Jones, who, in the various and hazardous services he had to undergo during the attack of the island, has proved highly deserving my praise; I have therefore put him to act as commander of the Peterell, which ship I have presumed to re-commission to convey the present dispatches. There is also high merit due to my second lieutenant, Mr. William Buchanan, whom I landed as second in command under captain Bowen, with more than two hundred and fifty seamen; there were likewise the Leviathan's and Centaur's marines with the army, to the number of one hundred; but other essential service calling captain Bowen on board his ship, the command of the seamen devolved on lieutenant Buchanan; and, as will appear by the strongest accompanying testimony given him from the commander in chief of the army, he performed the services with the army with the greatest ability and exertion. I should feel myself remiss was I to close this without noticing to your lordship the particular exertions, activity, and correctness of lieutenant Whiston, of the Constitution cutter, in the various services and messages he had to execute.

The general having signified his wish that his dispatches should be sent without delay, I have not yet been able to visit the port of Ma-

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hon, to obtain a return of the state of the dock-yard, or vessels captured in that place; but I understand from capt. lord Robert Mark Kerr, that there are no ships of war, and only one merchant ship of value; the particulars of which I will transmit by the earliest opportunity.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. T. DUCKWORTH.

At Sea, at Sea, Nov. 15, 1798.

SIR,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that at half past three P. M. on the 13th instant, I had the good fortune to come up with the ship that I hauled the wind after round cape Rouge, conformable to your signal; she proved to be his majesty's ship Peterell, in possession of Don Antonio Franco Gandrada, second capt. of the Spanish frigate Flora, who, in company with the three others named in the margin*, captured her the day before.

These frigates had come from Carthagena, had touched at Barcelona, sailed from thence on Saturday last bound to Mahon, with eight millions of rials to pay the troops.

Deeming it absolutely necessary to make the Peterell useful until your return, I took all the Spaniards out (72 in number), and gave her in charge of my first lieutenant, Mr Lyne, with a mate, two midshipmen, thirty seamen, and twelve marines, directing them to land an officer and guide at Fournelles, with a letter for general Stuart, and to return here immediately.

I am sorry to inform you the Spaniards behaved very ill to the officers and seamen of the Peterell, having robbed and plundered them of every thing. Great part of the

captain's and officers' clothes I have recovered. I returned off this place yesterday, but being calm I could not get near the shore.

I have, &c. J. BOWEN.
Commodore Duckworth.

Before Ciudadella, Nov. 18, 1798.

SIR,

I have the honour to return you, and the gentlemen employed on shore under your command, my sincere thanks for your activity, zeal, and assistance, in forwarding the light artillery of the army: neither can too much praise be given to the seamen for their friendly and cheerful exertions under very hard labour; exertions which were accompanied with a propriety of behaviour which I greatly attribute to your management, and which will ever merit my acknowledgments, and affords me the satisfaction of assuring you that I am, with sincere regard, Your's, &c.

CHARLES STUART.

Lieut. Buchannan.

A List of Stores found in the Arsenal at Port Mahon.

The keel and stern frame for a man of war brig, on the stocks, with all the timbers, and part of the clothing, all the rigging, &c.

14 gun-boats, hauled up, with all their rigging in good order, but the boats very old.

13 boats from 36 to 20 feet in length, all their rigging in good order, and fit for service.

2 cables of 17 inch.

2 cables of 9 inch.

2 cables of $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch.

Rope of 5 inch, 400 fathoms.

Rope of 3 inch, 400 fathoms:

Rope of $2\frac{1}{2}$ inch, 600 fathoms.

Rope of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, 400 fathoms.

Rope of 1 inch, 300 fathoms.

Rope of $\frac{3}{4}$ inch, 400 fathoms.

* Casilda, of 40 guns; Pomona, of 40; and Prosperine, of 40.

Old junk, 6000 pounds.
 Six anchors, from 14 to 17 hundred weight.
 Seven grapnels, of seven hundred weight.
 A large quantity of all sorts of iron work.
 A brass mortar of 13 inch.
 Three ditto of 12 ditto.
 Some shells of 13 and 8 inch.
 Two topmasts for 74 gun ships.
 Three lesser ones.
 Several caps and spars.
 1000 fir planks.
 Several knees, and some oak plank.
 Twenty tons of nails of all sorts.
 Thirty bolt of new, and about 400 yards of old canvas.
 Fourteen Spanish pendants.
 Blocks for the sheers and heaving ships down of all descriptions, with various other small articles.

J. WOOLDRIDGE,

Lieut. of the Cormorant.

List of Ships and Vessels found at Port Mahon, and taken Possession of.

A ship of 540 tons, partly laden with cotton, gum, and drugs.

A ship of 200 tons, in ballast.

A xebec of 60 tons, laden with horn.

And four small tartans.

J. WOOLDRIDGE,

Lieut. of the Cormorant.

Admiralty-office, December 25, 1798.

Copy of a Letter from Admiral Earl of St. Vincent, K. B. Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on board Le Souverain, Gibraltar, Nov. 27, 1798. Herewith you will receive the copy of a letter from rear-admiral lord Nelson, inclosing one from capt. Ball, of his majesty's ship Alexander, with the capitulation of the island of Goza.

Vanguard, at Sea, Nov. 1, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to transmit you a letter received from captain Ball, dated October 30, together with the capitulation of the castle of Goza, and a list of ordnance, &c. found in it. The prisoners are now embarked in the Vanguard and Minotaur till I can get a vessel to send them to France. Captain Ball, with three sail of the line, a frigate, and fireship, is entrusted with the blockade of Malta, in which are two sail of the line and three frigates ready for sea; and from the experience I have had of captain Ball's zeal, activity, and ability, I have no doubt but that in due time I shall have the honour of sending you a good account of the French in the town of Valetti.

I am, with the greatest respect,
 your lordship's

most obedient servant,

HORATIO NELSON.

Admiral earl of St. Vincent.

Alexander, off Malta, Oct. 30, 1798.

SIR,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the commandant of the French troops in the castle of Goza signed the capitulation the 28th inst. which you had approved. I ordered captain Creswell, of the marines, to take possession of it in the name of his Britannic majesty, and his majesty's colours were hoisted. The next day the place was delivered up in form to the deputies of the island, his Sicilian majesty's colours hoisted, and he acknowledged their lawful sovereignty.

I embarked yesterday all the French officers and men who were on the island of Goza, amounting to 217.

I inclose the articles of capitulation.

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lation, and an inventory of the the arms and ammunition found in the castle, part of which I directed to be sent to the assistance of the Maltese, who are in arms against the French. There were three thousand two hundred sacks of corn in the castle, which will be a great relief to the inhabitants, who are much in want of that article.

I have the honour to be, &c.

ALEX. JOHN BALL.

Rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson.

ARTICLES OF CAPITULATION
Between Alexander John Ball, Esq.
Captain of his Britannic Majesty's Ship Alexander, appointed to conduct the Blockade of Malta, under Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. on the Part of Great Britain, and Lieutenant-colonel Lochey, Adj. de Bat. Commander of the French Troops in the Castle of Goza.

1. The French troops shall march out of the castle of Goza with the honours of war, and shall lay down their arms as they get out of the gate.

2. The castle of Goza, with all the military implements and stores, shall be delivered up to the British officer appointed to take charge of them.

3. The French officers and troops shall be protected in their persons and effects, and the officers allowed to retain their side-arms; they shall be embarked immediately on board his Britannic majesty's ships, and sent to France in transports, at the expense of the French government. They are not to serve against his Britannic majesty, or his allies, during the war, until regularly exchanged.

Rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. has entered into articles with the inhabitants of Goza, that if the French surrender to the

British, they shall be considered as under their protection, and they will not offer them the smallest insult or molestation.

Signed the 28th October, 1798.

ALEXANDER JOHN BALL,
Captain of his Britannic majesty's ship Alexander.

LOCHEY, adj. de bataillon.

Approved—HORATIO NELSON.

Extract of Articles found in the
Castle of Goza, 28th Oct. 1798.

50 barrels of powder.
9000 ball cartridges.
1000 musquet cartridges without ball.
1700 flints.
38 eighteen-pound cartridges, filled.
140 twelve-pound ditto.
450 six-pound ditto.
268 four-pound ditto.
25 three-pound ditto.
83 two-pound ditto.
18 eighteen-pounder guns, good, and 200 shot.
2 twelve-pounder guns, good, and 900 shot.
4 six-pounder guns, good, and 2085 shot.
400 hand-granades, filled.
90 pikes and 90 halberts.
3200 sacks of corn.

N. B. No small arms, except those laid down by the French troops.

[The same gazette contains an account of the following vessels taken from the enemy;—L'Invincible Buonaparte, 20 guns, 170 men; Le Cantabre, 14 guns, 60 men; La Resource, 40 guns, 65 men; 7 French privateer schooners; by admiral Harvey's squadron, off Martinique; which had also recaptured 6 British and 16 American vessels, and had likewise detained 20 vessels under neutral colours.]

26. This evening, between seven and eight o'clock, a terrible fire broke

broke out at the spacious mansion of the earl of Essex, in Curzon-street, May-fair, which consumed the whole of the premises; the flames raged with such incredible fury, that scarcely any of the furniture could be saved.

27. Yesterday morning, about four o'clock, a fire broke out at a cottage in Heytesbury, Wilts, which was in a short time reduced to ashes, together with two other thatched cottages adjoining; and three women and a girl, who were there employed in spinning, &c. for the parish, unfortunately perished in the flames, before any assistance could be given.

29. By a thermometer placed in the north-east aspect at Islington, it

was so cold during the night of the 24th inst. as to be down to 18° degrees, 14 below the freezing-point; on the 25th, down to 15; on the 26th, to 13; on the 27th, to 12; and so it remained at eight o'clock on the 28th.

The gazette of December 29 contains an account of the following prizes by the St. Fiorenzo and Triton; the St. Joseph, Spanish privateer, mounting 4 long brass six-pounders, 64 men; La Ruse, French brig, coppered, 14 guns, 60 men; and the George brig recaptured. Also the Adolphe, French privateer, 2 carriage guns, 2 swivels, and several small arms, by his majesty's sloop El Corfo.

The LONDON GENERAL BILL of

CHRISTENINGS and BURIALS, from December 12, 1797, to December 11, 1798.

Christened { Males 9497 } 17927. Buried { Males 8964 } 18,155. Increas. in Burials
Females 8430 } this Year 1141.

Died under 2 Years	5728	20 and 30 -	1280	60 and 70 -	1292	100 - -
Between 2 and 5	2189	30 and 40 -	1678	70 and 80 -	919	102 - -
5 and 10	802	40 and 50 -	1732	80 and 90 -	353	105 - - I
10 and 20	573	50 and 60 -	1566	90 and 100 -	41	108 - - I
						117 - - I

BIRTHS in the Year 1798.

Jan. 2. The countess of Dalkeith, a son.

5. Lady Charlotte Strutt, a daughter.

6. The lady of P. I. Theluffon, esq. twin sons.

21. Mrs. Banting, of Little Rington, Gloucestershire, a daughter, her 32d child.

28. Lady Charlotte Greville, a son.

— Right hon. lady Emily McLeod, a daughter.

— Her Imperial majesty of Russia, a prince.

Feb. 25. Right hon. lady Petre, a daughter.

March 1. The empress of Germany, an archduchess.

— Lady of sir John Davie, bart. two sons.

3. Lady of sir William Eliot, bart. a son.

19. Lady Calthorpe, a daughter.

26. Lady Rodney, a son.

27. Countess of Derby, a still-born child.

— Lady Spencer, a son.

April 10. Lady Charlotte Campbell, a son.

20. Marchioness of Titchfield, a daughter.

— Lady of sir Thomas Henry Liddell, bart. a daughter.

23. Countess of Albemarle, a daughter.

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24. Lady

24. Lady Say and Sele, a son.
 26. Her royal highness the duchess of Wirtemberg, a daughter.
 29. The lady of sir Samuel Fludyer, bart. a daughter.
May 13. Countess of Aylesford, a son.
 25. Lady of sir John Stirling, bart. a son.
 27. Hon. Mrs. Childers, a son.
 31. Countess of Euston, a son.
 —. Lady Charlotte Nares, a daughter.
 —. Lady Harriet Gill, a daughter.
June 27. Hon. Mrs. Carleton, a daughter.
 28. Lady Eliz. Talbot, a son.
July 2. Lady of sir Charles Wat-son, a daughter.
 10. Lady of the hon. Newtown Fellows, a daughter.
 13. Her majesty the queen of Prussia, a princess.
 19. Lady of sir Francis Ford, bart. a daughter.
 28. Countess dowager of Mansfield, wife of the hon. F. Greville, a daughter.
 31. Lady viscountess Fielding, a son.
 —. The lady of sir N. B. Grefley, bart. a daughter.
Aug. 10. Mrs. Sommerfield, of the queen's palace, two sons and a daughter.
Sept. 5. Lady Charlotte Lenox, a daughter.
 8. Viscountess Chetwynd, two daughters.
 13. Lady Grey, a daughter.
 17. Lady Charles Ainsley, a son.
 18. The wife of John Primrose, esq. of Barton, two sons and a daughter.
 29. Countess of Banbury, a daughter.
Oct. 5. Lady Louisa Brome, a daughter.
 12. Lady of the hon. and rev. A. H. Cathcart, a daughter.
12. Princess of Brazil, a prince.
 —. Lady of sir Thomas Whichcote, bart. a son.
 19. Lady Harriet Sullivan, a son.
 24. Hon. Mrs. Barnard, a still-born child.
 25. Lady Portchester, a daughter.
 31. Mrs. Blower, of Downstreet, three sons.
 —. Lady of the bishop of St. David's, a son.
Nov. 5. Countess of Guildford, a daughter.
 9. Viscountess Dungannon, a son.
 14. Lady Anne Vernon, wife of the bishop of Carlisle, a son.
 15. Madame Desparre, Welbeckstreet, two daughters and a son.
 21. Lady of the hon. the speaker of the house of commons, a son.
 23. Lady Hugh Seymour, a daughter.
Dec. 7. Lady Louisa Hartley, a daughter.
 —. Lady Catherine Graham, a daughter.
 8. Lady Le Despenser, a daughter.
 10. Marchioness of Blandford, a daughter.
 12. The countess of Errol, a daughter.
 —. Lady of the hon. Mr. Petre, a daughter.
 26. Lady of sir Frederick Morton Eden, a daughter.
 29. Lady Hervey, a daughter.

MARRIAGES for 1798.

Jan. 4. Lieut.-col. R. Ferguson, to Miss Monroe, daughter of lieutenant sir H. Monroe.

5. W. Philips Juge, esq. of Thorpe, to lady Elizabeth Stewart, second daughter of lord Galloway.

15. Pascoc Grinfell, esq. of Taplow, to the hon. Georgina St. Leger, sister to viscount Doneraile.

—. Sir Francis L. Wood, bart.

of Bowling-hall, York, to Miss Buck.

20. Lord Sheffield, to lady Anne North, daughter of the late earl of Guildford.

Feb. 1. John Payne, esq. of Wells, to the hon. Mrs. Hyde.

12. Mr. Holman, of Covent-garden theatre, to Miss Hamilton, daughter of the hon. and rev. Frederick Hamilton, and grand-daughter of lord Archibald Hamilton.

20. Lord Hervey, to the hon. Miss Upton, daughter of the dowager lady Templetown.

— Rev. F. North, son to the bishop of Winchester, to Miss Esther Harrison.

— Pryse Loveden, esq. of Woodstock, to the hon. Mrs. Agar, sister of lord viscount Ashbrooke.

26. Winchcombe Henry Hartley, esq. to the right hon. lady Louisa Lumley.

March 24. Sir John Trollope, bart. to Miss Thorold.

28. Joseph Sydney Yorke, esq. M. P. brother to the earl of Hardwicke, to Miss Rattray.

— Sir Richard Steele, bart. to Miss Frances D'Alton, daughter of the late general count D'Alton.

April 9. James Arbuckle, esq. of Donaghadee, to lady Sophia Jocelyn, sister to the earl of Roden.

17. The hon. George Villiers, brother to the earl of Clarendon, to the hon. Miss Parker, daughter of the late lord Boringdon.

31. Capt. Ross, of the 41st regiment, to the hon. Miss Browne, daughter of the late lord Kilmaine.

May 18. Earl of Yarmouth to Miss Fagniani.

30. Hon. W. Gore, second son of the earl of Arran, to Miss Caroline Hales, youngest daughter of the late sir Thomas Pym Hales, bart.

— The hon. Frederick West, brother to the earl of Delawar, to Miss Maria Middleton.

June 18. Sir Henry Every, bart. to Miss P. Moseley, daughter of sir John Moseley, bart.

— Sir Samuel Brooke, bart. of Seaton, to Miss Collleboe, of Anglesea.

July 10. Right hon. W. Wyndham, secretary at war, to Miss Cecilia Forrest, daughter of the late admiral Forrest.

12. Hon. Henry Windfor, brother to the earl of Plymouth, to Miss Copson.

Aug. 2. Charles Ellis, esq. M. P. to the hon. Miss Hervey, daughter of the late lord Hervey.

— Hon. col. John Vaughan, M. P. son of the earl of Lisburne, to the hon. Lucy Courtenay, daughter of the late lord Courtenay.

7. The hon. col. John Hope, brother to the earl of Hopetoun, and M. P. to Miss Eliza Hope, daughter of the hon. Charles Hope.

16. Capt. sir Edmund Nagle, to Mrs. Blackman.

20. Hon. Philip Pusey, brother to the late earl of Radnor, to lady Lucy Cave, daughter of the earl of Harborough, and relict of the late sir Thomas Cave, bart.

21. Richard Norman, esq. of Leatherhead, to lady Eliz. Manners, eldest sister of the duke of Rutland.

25. Hon. E. Tournour, brother of the earl of Wintertown, to Miss Hester Hayward.

29. Hon. Edward Hawke, eldest son of lord Hawke, to Miss Frances-Anne Hervey.

— Mr. Hardinge, to lady — Gore, daughter of the earl of Ross.

— Lord Leslie, to Miss Campbell, daughter of the late colonel Campbell.

Sept. 5. Rev. Henry Maxwell, to lady

lady Anne Butler, daughter of the earl of Carrick.

Oct. 6. Sir Edward Baynes, bart. to Miss Lambert.

24. Sir Charles Ventris Field, knight-banneret, to Mrs. Lill.

Nov. 9. Earl Home, to lady Eliz. Montague, third daughter of the duke of Buccleugh.

10. Lord W. Seymour, brother to the marquis of Hertford, to Miss M. Clitheroe.

Dec. 14. The hon. Thomas Ralph Maude, to the hon. Frances-Anne Agar, daughter of the archbishop of Cashel.

29. J. Woodcock, esq. to Miss A. Hotham, daughter of the hon. sir Beaumont Hotham, baron of the exchequer.

DEATHS in 1798.

Jan. 6. Sir John Sinclair, bart. of Longformiens.

8. Sir Ralph Milbanke.

9. John lord Lisle, of the kingdom of Ireland.

12. Dowager lady Beauchamp Proctor.

15. Hon. Mrs. Harley, lady of the right hon. Thomas Harley, father of the city of London.

16. General sir John Dalling, K. B.

21. Lady Elizabeth Bellenden, relict of John Kerr, lord Bellenden.

— Sir David Williams, bart. of Goldingtons, Hertfordshire.

26. Sir William Gordon, K. B.

29. Lady Chambers, relict of sir William Chambers.

31. Rear-admiral William Truscott, esq.

Feb. 3. The countess of Stair.

6. James Hamilton, earl of Clanbrassil.

7. Lady Clinton, relict of Ro-

bert George William Trefusis, lord Clinton.

12. Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, late king of Poland and grand-duke of Lithuania.

— Joseph Dormer, earl of Dorchester, viscount and baron Milton.

22. Sir William Moleworth, bart. of Pencarrow, Cornwall.

24. Dame Jane Riddell, widow of the late sir John Riddell, bart.

March 9. Her serene highness the duchess dowager of Wirtemberg.

14. Lady Tynte, widow of sir Charles Kemys Tynte, of Halfwell, Somerset.

16. Henry lord Calthorpe.

22. Countess dowager of Banbury.

April 2. Louisa lady Willoughby de Broke, daughter of Francis earl of Guildford.

— Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, bart. of Tiffington, Derby.

— Lady Maxwell, wife of sir W. Maxwell, bart. of Monteath.

9. Henry Noel, sixth earl of Gainborough, viscount Campden.

— Sir George Allanson Winn, bart. lord Headly in Ireland, and M. P. for Rippon.

10. Arthur lord viscount Harbenton.

17. Lady Robert Bertie, relict of lord Robert Bertie, uncle of the duke of Ancafter.

19. Dame Elizabeth Dashwood, widow of sir James Dashwood, bart.

29. Sir Robert Palk, bart. and M. P.

— Sir Philip Houghton Clarke, bart.

May 4. Hon. Augustus Windsor, son of the earl of Plymouth.

16. Lady Sophia-Amyntor Lambert, youngest daughter of Richard earl of Cavan.

19. William

19. William fifth lord Byron.
 22. Lady Emma Maria Wallop, youngest sister of the earl of Portsmouth.
 —. Lady Rachel Drummond, daughter of the late earl of Perth.
 —. Right hon. John Scott, earl of Clonmell, baron Earlsfort, chief justice of the king's bench, Ireland.
 28. Sir John Riggs Miler, bart.
June 4. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, brother to the duke of Leinster.
 —. Executed at Carlow, Ireland, for rebellion, sir Edward Crosbie, bart.
 5. Luke Gardiner, lord Mountjoy.
 10. Laura, lady Southampton.
 —. Sir Charles H. Talbot, bart.
 14. The earl of Errol.
 16. Sir Joseph Mawbey, bart.
 18. John viscount O'Neill.
 19. William Jennens, esq. Acton-place, Suffolk, reckoned the most opulent subject in Great Britain.
 21. Sir James Saunderson, bart. and alderman of London.
 23. The dukes of Leinster.
 24. The archduchess Maria Christina of Austria.
 26. Lady Barbara Pleydell Bouverie, daughter of the earl of Radnor.
 27. Hon. Mrs. Charlotte Digby, relict of the late dean of Durham.
 —. Lady Dorothy Hotham, relict of sir Charles Hotham Thompson, bart.
July 10. Hon. James Bruce, son of the late earl of Elgin.
 19. Hon. John Turnour, son of the earl of Winterton.
 27. Right hon. lady Mary Hore, daughter of the countess of Wicklow, and wife of the rev. Thomas Hore.
Aug. 3. Viscountess Downe, daughter of the late general Scott.
 9. Lady James, relict of sir William James, bart.
 15. Lady Charlotte Disbrowe, daughter of the earl of Buckinghamshire, and wife of Edward Disbrowe, esq.
 18. Hon. Richard Walpole, brother to lord Walpole.
 19. Lady Wilmot, relict of the late sir Robert Wilmot, bart.
 20. Lady Mary Douglas, daughter of the earl of Selkirk.
 27. Right hon. lady Mary Eyre, daughter of the countess of Newburgh, peeress in her own right.
 29. Sir Thomas Spencer Wilson, bart.
Sept. 6. Sir Jonathan Philips, knt.
 7. Sir Peter Soame, bart.
 30. Molineux Shoultham, lord Shoultham, and adm. of the white.
 —. Hon. and right rev. Dr. Maxwell, bishop of Meath, brother to the earl of Farnham.
 —. Lady Frances Bulkley, eldest daughter of the earl of Peterborough, and wife of the rev. S. Bulkley.
 —. Sir Charles Farnaby Radcliffe, bart. of Kepington, Kent, and M. P.
Oct. 5. Edmund Boyle, earl of Cork and Overly.
 6. Sir John Parker Moseley, bart. Staffordshire.
 21. Sir Adam Williamson, K. B. late governor of Jamaica.
 22. William lord Bagot.
 30. Sir Thomas Byard, knt. captain of the Foudroyant.
 —. Lady Stanley, relict of sir Thomas Stanley, bart.
Nov. 5. John Zephaniah Howell, esq. formerly governor of Bengal.
 17. Sir Richard Reynell, bart. of the kingdom of Ireland.
 29. Lady Mary Carnegie, daughter of the earl of Northesk.
 30. Earl

30. Earl of Portarlington.

— Maria, countess dowager of Carhampton.

Dec. 2. Hon. William King, brother of Lord King.

— Lady Anderson, wife of sir Edmund Anderson, bart.

8. Sir Edward Dering, bart. of Surrenden-Dering.

16. Thomas Pennant, esq. the eminent naturalist and antiquary.

27. Anne, countess of Arly.

PROMOTIONS *in the Year*
1798.

Jan. 4. Right hon. sir Ralph Abercrombie, K. B. of the privy council of Ireland.

5. Right rev. Dr. John Porter, bishop of Killala, bishop of Clogher, vice Foster, deceased.

6. Brevet capt. Richard Hovendon, major in the army.

8. Lieutenant-generals sir Thomas Shirley, bart. Patrick Tonyn, Gabriel Christie, John Reid, sir William Green, bart. George Scott, Charles O'Hara, Loftus Antony Tottenham, William Rowley, Peter Bathurst, hon. William Gordon, Robert Prescott, hon. William Harcourt, Henry earl of Carhampton, William Dalrymple, William Picton, sir Hector Munro, K. B. hon. William Hervey, J. Fletcher Campbell, Francis Lascelles, sir William Meadows, K. B. —generals in the army.

Major-generals William Sheriff, William Ormfield, Samuel Hulse, Albemarle Bertie, Charles Valancey, John Thomas earl of Clanricarde, sir James Steuart, bart. Thomas Carleton, James Marsh, Cavendish Lister, Charles Leigh, James Ogilvie, sir Robert Laurie, bart. William Martin, John Archer, William Edmeston, Forbes Mac-

bean, David Home, Hugh Debiegg, Richard Dawson, Montgomery Agnew, James Stewart, Alexander earl of Balcarres, hon. Chas. Steuart, Cornelius Cuyler, Charles earl of Harrington, hon. Richard Fitzpatrick, Nesbitt Balfour, Edmund Stevens, Thomas Trigge, Francis earl of Moira, Peter Craig —to be lieutenant-generals in the army.

Colonels Philip Martin, of the royal artillery; William Borthwick, of the royal artillery; Eyre Coote, aide-de-camp to the king; Jeffery Amherst, of the 10th foot; Harry Burrard, aide-de-camp to the king; Charles Lennox, aide-de-camp to the king; James Adolphus Harris, of the 60th foot; Arthur Ormsby, of the 6th dragoon guards; Henry Reade, of the 1st life guards; William John Arabin, of the 2d life guards; George Don, aide-de-camp to the king; John Francis Craddock, of the late 127th foot; Colebrook Nesbitt, aide-de-camp to the king; lord Charles Fitzroy, aide-de-camp to the king; Napier Christie Burton, of the 3d foot guards; Richard Rich Wilford, of the York hussars; Edward Morrifson, of the Coldstream guards; sir Charles Asgill, bart. of the 1st foot guards; hon. Charles Monson, aide-de-camp to the king; Thomas Garth, aide-de-camp to the king; Vaughan Lloyd, of the royal artillery; sir James St. Clair Erskine, bart.; William Brady, of the royal artillery in Ireland; Lucius Barber, of the royal artillery in Ireland—to be majors-generals in the army.

Lieutenant-colonel James Webber, an independent officer; Chas. William Este, of the 64th foot; Samuel Twentymen, on half-pay of the 90th foot; George Rochfort, of the invalid artillery; Joseph

Joseph F. W. Desbarres, of the 60th foot; Sir Charles Marsh, an independent officer; Francis Grose, of the new South-Wales corps; William Scott, on half pay of the 80th foot; Archibald Campbell, of the 8th foot; Francis Fuller, of the 59th foot; Arthur Carter, of the 14th light dragoons; James Affleck, of the 16th light dragoons; George Vaughan Hart, of the 75th foot; John Robinson, of the late horse grenadier guards; George Brodie, of the 52d foot; hon. Thomas Maitland, of the 62d foot; Patrick Hely, of the 11th foot; Daniel Robertson, of the 60th foot; John Blake, of the 24th foot; Archibald M'Alister, of the 35th foot; Richard Bright, of the marines; Alexander Macdonald, of the marines; William Ramsay, of the 80th foot; Gustavus Belford, of the royal regiment of horse guards; John William Augustus Romer, of the 60th foot; James Campbell, an independent officer; Edward Madden, of the 15th foot; John Skerrett, of a late West-India regiment; Hildebrand Oakes, of the 26th foot; C. Campbell, of the 6th foot; George Prevost, of the 60th foot; Stair Park Dalrymple, of the 71st foot; John Ormsby Vandeleur, of the 5th dragoon guards; John Carnegie, of the 11th light dragoons; William Waller, of the 3d dragoons; Sir Thomas Chapman, of the 6th dragoon guards; Mervyn Archdall, of the 11th light dragoons; John Haydock Boardman, of the 2d dragoons; Edward Dawson, of the 8th foot; John Cope Sherbrooke, of the 33d foot; James Hall, of the 8th light dragoons; William Payne, of the 3d dragoon guards—to be colonels in the army.

Lieutenant-colonels hon. Ed-

ward Bligh, on the half-pay of the late 107th foot; William lord Craven, of the 3d foot; Hugh Campbell, of the 3d foot guards; lord William Bentinck, of the 24th light dragoons; Edmund viscount Duncarvon, of the Coldstream foot guards—to be aides-de-camp to the King.

Lieutenant-colonel Lambert Theophilus Walpole, of the late 107th foot, deputy adjutant-general to the forces in Ireland, to be colonel in the army.

Lieutenant-colonels Coote Manningham, of the 41st foot; Henry George Grey, of the 17th light dragoons; hon. Edward Paget, of the 28th foot; Arthur Whetham, of the 1st foot guards—to be aides-de-camp to the King.

Majors, from Ninian Imrie, of the 1st foot, to William Sherlock, of the 5th dragoon guards—to be lieutenant-colonels in the army.

Captains, from Robert Balfour, of the second dragoons, to James Eyre Caulfield, of the 55th foot—to be majors in the army.

12. Brevet col. John Whitelocke, brigadier-general in Guernsey only.

— Lieut.-col. Alexander Pope, lieutenant-governor of Edinburgh castle, vice lord Eglintoun, resigned.

19. Rev. Joseph Stock, D. D. bishop of Killala, vice Porter.

— Colonel Charles Handfield, commissary-general of stores, &c. to the forces in Ireland.

— Lord Braybrooke, lord lieutenant of the county of Essex.

23. Brevet col. John Murray, brigadier-general in Nova-Scotia only.

— Lieutenant-colonel Henry viscount Gage, colonel.

Majors Charles Douglas Smith, on the half-pay of Tarleton's light dragoons;

dragoons; Charles Wall, on the half-pay of the independents; Francis Seymour, of the 87th foot; Thomas Fitzgerald, of the 29th foot; Richard Hovendon, of the 21st light dragoons—to be lieutenant-colonels in the army.

Captain William Troughton, commandant of the late 129th foot; Patrick Ewing, and Henry Johnstone, of the Scotch brigade: P. I. Fellowes, of the 47th foot—to be majors in the army.

Brevet lieut.-col. Walter Cliffe, of the royal fusileers, to be adjutant-general to the forces in the East-Indies, vice Achmuty, who resigns; brevet major Hugh Mackay Gordon, of the 16th foot, to be quarter-master-general to the said forces, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the army, vice Hall, who resigns; major William Hutchinson, of the independents, to be major of brigade to the forces in South Britain, vice M'Murdo, who resigns; capt. Henry Percy Pulleine, of the 2d dragoons, to be major of brigade to the said forces, vice Ruddock, who resigns; Archibald Gloster, esq. to be deputy-judge-advocate to the forces serving in the Leeward Islands; Thomas Williams, jun. gent. to be commissary of stores and provisions to the forces at Annapolis Royal, vice Williams, deceased.

John Ewart, M. D. to be physician to the forces, and inspector-general of hospitals in the island of Ceylon.

27. Appointment of John Ross, esq. to be his Sicilian majesty's vice-consul at Gibraltar, approved by his majesty.

30. Thomas Williams, gent. to be barrack-master at Annapolis.

Feb. 6. Appointment of John Elmslie, esq. to be vice-consul to

his Swedish majesty at Gibraltar, approved by his majesty.

6. Brevet the honourable colonel Thomas Maitland, of the 62d foot, to be brigadier-general in the West Indies only.

Lieut.-colonel Henry Richmond Gale, of the late 20th light dragoons; Robert Tipping, of the late 80th foot; George Ward, of the late horse grenadier guards, to be colonels in the army.

Major Horace Churchill, of the late horse grenadier guards, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army.

Capt. Samuel Venables Hinde, of the 25th foot, to be major in the army.

8. Sir Valentine Browne, bart. created baron of Castle Ross and viscount of Kenmare, county of Kerry, with remainder to his heirs male.

9. James Talbot, esq. appointed secretary of legation at the court of St. Petersburg.

14. John earl of Westmoreland, appointed keeper of the privy seal, vice earl of Chatham, resigned.

William Wentworth earl Fitzwilliam, appointed lord lieutenant of the West Riding of the county of York, and of the city of York, and county of the same, vice duke of Norfolk, resigned.

John Colpoys, esq. vice-admiral of the blue, created a knight of the Bath, vice sir William Gordon, deceased.

14. Charles Paulet, esq. (commonly called earl of Wiltshire), to be lord-lieutenant and custos-rotulorum of the county of Southampton, vice commissioners (the marquis of Winchester, his father, sir W. Heathcote, bart. W. Clute, esq.)

14. Dame Rose Ffrench, widow of the late sir Charles Ffrench, bart.

bart. created baroness Ffrench, of Castle Ffrench, county of Galway; with remainder of the title of baron Ffrench, of Castle Ffrench aforesaid, to her heirs male by the said sir Charles Ffrench, bart.

Right hon. John Foster, to be governor of the county of Louth, vice earl of Clanbrassil, deceased.

17. Philip earl of Chesterfield, to be master of the horse to his majesty, vice earl of Westmoreland.

George earl of Leicester, and William lord Auckland, to be his majesty's postmasters-general; the latter vice lord Chesterfield.

Lieutenant-col. Aytoune, and lieutenant-col. J. Spens, colonels.

Appointments in the East-India Company's Service.

Colonels John Pestre, Thomas Brownrigg, John McGowan, Dugald Campbell, Thomas Trent, Thomas Prendergraft, Robert Nicholson, Alexander Hardy, Richard Tolson, Stafford William Sam. Waddington, Vere Warner Hussey—to be major-generals.

Lieutenant-colonels George Russell, sir Ewen Baillie, John Macdonald, William Palmer, Edward Clarke, William Vanas, Roger Edward Roberts, Robert Mackenzie, James Dunn, James Dickson, John Bateman, Patrick Hay, Chas. Henry White, George Mence, Christopher Green, David Woodburn, James Stevenson, John Conrad Sartorius, Francis Gowdie, Henry Malcolm, Edward Montague—to be colonels.

Majors Charles Scott, Robert Baillie, Richard Scott, Samuel Dyer, Edmund Lambert, John Rattray, James Meredith Vibart, Samuel Black, Samuel Watson, John Collins, Henry Vincent, Wil-

liam Denby, Robert Ogle, Robert Rayne, James Pearson, Thomas Welsh, Andrew William Hearsay, Jabez Mackenzie, John Boujonnar, Thomas Higgins, James Pringle, William Mackintosh, Henry Hyndman, Patrick Douglas, John Fenwick, Thomas Edwards, Robert Frith, Hugh Stafford, Richard Grenber, John Powell, sir John Murray, bart. James Morrice, Peregrine Powell, James Noke, Patrick Macdougall, John Hilliard, Robert Philips, Ludowick Grant, Robert Hamilton, Robert Bruce, Hamey Charles Palmer, William Scott, Robert Blair, William Kirkpatrick, Richard Macau, John Mackintyre, John Gardner, Henry De Castro, William Burn, Thomas Hawkshaw, Samuel Cox, Daniel Conyngham, Peter Murray, John Garstin, Charles Carlisle, Archibald Brown, William Flint, George Fotheringham, William Rattray, George Wahab, George Waight, Thomas Leighton, James Oliver, Francis Torrens, Carey Lalande, Cromwell Massey, Walter Anderfon, David Campbell, Alexander Macpherson, James Dalrymple, John Richardson, Alexander Read, Donald Macneale, Thomas Hallcote, Thomas Parr, James Campbell, Joseph Little, William Kinsey, T. Bowser, Barry Close, James Oram, John Haliburton, Charles Smart, Lewis Grant, John Gillanders, John Hutchinson, John Guthrie, Samuel Bradshaw, George Wood, Hercules Skinner, William Clayton, George Ure, Jonathan Wood, John Haynes, Thomas Kearnan, sir John Kennaway, bart. Joseph Burnett—to be lieutenant-colonels.

Captains John Bell, Henry Parker Lawrence, William Basset Haacke, Thomas Fyffe, James Arthur

thur Tanner, Jn. Burrowes, Jn. Capon, Charles Wittel, to be majors.

March 6. William Lowndes, Barne Barne, Edward Meadows, Horace Hayes, and George Trenchard Goodenough, esqrs. to be his majesty's commissioners for managing the affairs of taxes.

7. Lieutenant-colonel Robert Crawford, of the 60th foot, to be deputy-quarter-master-general to the forces in Ireland, vice Handfield.

10. Brevet col. George Prevost, of the 60th foot, to be brigadier-general in the West Indies only.—Major — M'Creagh, of the South American rangers, to be major in the army.

Thomas Keate, esq. inspector of regimental hospitals, to be surgeon general to the forces, vice Gunning, deceased; and John Rush, esq. to be inspector of regimental hospitals, vice Keate.

14. Thomas Strange, esq. knighted.

19. The earl of Ormond, and viscount Dillon, knights of St. Patrick.

24. Lieutenant-colonel earl of Crawford, colonel.

Brooke Watson, esq. from half-pay, as late commissary-general on the continent, commissary-general of all stores, &c. to the forces at home, vice Bisset, who retires on half-pay.

Major George Smith, brigade-major-general.

General William Dalrymple, lieutenant-governor of Chelsea hospital.

Captain Charles Boycott, major of brigade.

Brevet major Robert Bisset, assistant quarter-master-general to the troops under the command of sir William Howe.

April 3. Brevet colonel William earl Fitzwilliam, of the 1st regi-

ment of the West Riding Yorkshire militia, col. in the army, and to take rank as such so long as the said militia shall remain embodied for actual service.

Staff. Major George Vigoroux, of the late Corsican corps, major of brigade to the forces in South Britain.

4. Field-marshal his royal highness Frederick duke of York, commander in chief of all his majesty's land forces in the kingdom of Great Britain.

7. Sir John Morshead, of Trenant-park, county of Cornwall, bart. lord warden of the Stannaries, and chief steward of the duchy of Cornwall and Devon, vice viscount Lewisham.

17. Staff. Capt. Nicholas Ramsay, of the 2d foot, major of brigade to the forces.—Lieutenant-colonel K. A. Howard, of the Coldstream guards, major of brigade to the foot guards.

20. John Hay, esq. a baronet.

21. Staff. Lieut.-colonel Alex. Smollett, of the 1st regiment of foot guards, major of brigade to the foot guards.—Lieut. — Le Breton, of the Jersey militia, major of brigade to the said militia.

25. George Edward Henry Arthur earl Powis, lord-lieutenant of the county of Salop, vice lord Clive.

28. Staff. Lieut.-col. Charles Stevenson, of the 5th foot, brigade-major-general to the troops under the command of field-marshal his royal highness the duke of Gloucester.

May 5. Right hon. John William Anderson, of Mill-hill, Hendon, Middlesex, esq. lord mayor of the city of London, a baronet.

8. Brevet lieutenant-colonel Gordon Drummond, of the 8th foot, colonel in the army.

Staff.

Staff. Lieut.-col. George Frederick Koehler, of the royal artillery, assistant quarter-master-general to the forces serving under the command of major general lord Mulgrave.—Major Robert Ross, and capt. George Laye, of the late 2d battalion of 90th foot, majors of brigade to the forces in South Britain.

Garrison. Jacob Cuyler, esq. deputy commissary of stores and provisions to the forces in the island of Dominica, vice Finlayson, who has been absent from his duty several years.

9. William Beechy, esq. knighted.

11. Sir John Anstruther, knight, chief justice of the supreme court of judicature at Fort William in Bengal, a baronet.

22. Honourable Arthur Paget, his majesty's envoy extraordinary to the Elector Palatine, and minister to the Diet of Ratisbon.

23. Robert, viscount Belgrave, lord-lieutenant of the county of Flint.

June 5. Staff. Lieutenant-gen. sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. commander of his majesty's forces in North Britain, vice lord Adam Gordon, resigned.

9. Staff. Lieut.-colonel Brent Spencer, aide-de-camp to the King, vice Campbell, deceased.

13. Charles, marquis Cornwallis, lieutenant-general and general-governor of Ireland, vice the earl Camden.

16. His grace the duke of Rutland, colonel of the Leicestershire militia, vice Pochin, deceased.

23. John Williams, esq. of Bedywyddan by St. Asaph, and John Callander, esq. of Westertown, county Stirling, and of Crichton and Preston-hall, and Elphinstone,

1798.

in the counties of East and Mid-Lothian, baronets.

23. Colonels Andrew Cowell, of the Coldstream guards; James Ferrier, of the engineers in Ireland; Joseph Duffeaz, on the half-pay of the 86th foot; Colin Mackenzie, of the 15th foot; Mackay Hugh Baillie, of the Reay fencibles; John Joinour Ellis, of the 23d foot; Archibald Robertson; Bryan Blundell, of the 45th foot; John Dickson, on half-pay; Charles Jackman, of the marines; Miles Scaveley, of the royal regiment of horse guards; hon. John Knox, of the 36th foot; John Money, on half-pay of the 91st foot; Thomas Murray, on half-pay of the late 84th foot; James-Edward Urquhart, of the loyal Essex fencibles; George Churchill, of the 15th light dragoons; Eyre Power Trench, of the late 102d foot; George Beckwith, of the 37th foot; William Gooday Strutt, of the 54th foot; Thomas Roberts, on half-pay of the 111th foot; hon. George James Ludlow, of the 1st foot guards; John Moore, of the 51st foot, Richard earl of Cavan, of the Coldstream guards; David Baird of the 71st foot; hon. Henry Astley Bennet, of the 1st foot-guards; hon. Frederick St. John, of the late 117th foot; sir Charles Ross bart. of the late 116th foot; John Whitelocke, of the 6th West-India regt.; Hay McDowall, of the 78th foot; lord Charles-Henry Somerset, on half-pay of the 103d foot; John Despard, of the royal fusiliers; William Anne Villetes, of the 1st dragoon guards; William Wemyss;—major-generals in the army.

Brevet. Col. Robert Kingscote, of the North Gloucestershire militia, and colonel B. R. De Capell Brocke, of the Northamptonshire militia,

(M)

militia,

militia, colonels in the army, and to take rank as such as long as those militias shall remain embodied for actual service.—Captain Charles Newton, of the late 134th foot, major in the army.

Staff. Capt. St. John Fancourt, of the 56th foot, major of brigade to the forces.

Hospital-staff. Sir Alex. Douglas, bart. M. D. physician to the forces in North Britain.

29. Brevet. Frederick baron Hompesch, colonel in the army on the Irish establishment.

30. Staff. Col. John Doyle, of the 87th foot, brigadier-general at Gibraltar only.—Philip Rogers Bearcroft, esq. late deputy-commissary of accounts at St. Domingo, commissary of accounts in the Leeward Islands; vice Dornford, deceased.—William M'Myne, esq. late of the 58th foot, paymaster at Duncannon fort.

July 3. Right honourable Arthur Wolfe, chief justice of his majesty's court of king's bench in Ireland, vice the earl of Clonmell, deceased; also created a baron of that kingdom, by the style and title of baron Kilwarden, of Newlands, county of Dublin, with remainder to his heirs male.

7. Staff. Col. Robert Anstruther, baggage-master and inspector of the roads in North Britain, vice Sir Charles Preston, who resigns.

Hospital Staff. Dr. William Shapter, M. D. to be inspector of hospitals.

14. Brevet. Major-general Henry Bowyer, lieutenant-general in the Leeward Islands only.

Staff. Lieutenant-colonel Richard Stuart, of the 51st foot, adjutant-general to the forces serving in Portugal, vice Hadden, who resigns.—Captain Lindsay Crawford Campbell, of the 20th foot, deputy-adjutant general to the said forces, with

the rank of major in the army, vice Stuart.

16. John Toler, esq. attorney-general of Ireland, vice Wolfe; and John Stewart, esq. solicitor-general, vice Toler.

18. James Bontein, esq. knighted.

21. Brevet. Lieut.-col. Charles Hastings, of the 61st foot, colonel in the army.—Col. Charles Hastings, of the 61st foot, major-general in the army.

To be colonels in the army, and to take rank as such so long as their respective regiments of militia shall remain embodied for actual service: colonel John-Henry duke of Rutland, of the Leicestershire militia; colonel John Campbell, of the 1st (or Argyllshire) militia; colonel Douglas, duke of Hamilton, of the 3d (or Lanarkshire) militia; colonel Charles, earl of Dalkeith, of the 4th (or Dumfriesshire) militia; colonel James, duke of Montrose, of the 5th (or Fifeshire) militia; col. George, earl of Aboyne, of the 6th (or Aberdeenshire) militia; colonel George, earl of Glasgow, of the 7th (or Ayrshire) militia; col. Archibald, lord Douglas, of the 8th (or Forfar) militia; colonel John, duke of Athol, of the 9th (or Perthshire) militia; colonel Henry, duke of Buccleugh, of the 10th (or Edinburgh) militia.

Staff. Thomas Durell, Esq. deputy-commissary-general on the continent; Christopher Bourcard, esq. assistant-commissary-general on the continent.

To be deputy-commissaries-general: Joseph Bullock, William-Henry Robinson, and Henry Lannoy Hunter, esqrs.

To be assistant-commissary, Charles Wright, esq.

Hospital-staff. Dr. — Gieves, M. D. from half-pay, to be inspector of hospitals in North Britain.

28. Sir James Crautord, bart. his

his majesty's minister-plenipotentiary to the circle of Lower Saxony, and resident with the Hans Towns.

August 2. John Toler, esq. and the hon. Richard Annesley, sworn of his majesty's privy-council of Ireland.

4. Staff. James Putnam, esq. deputy-barrack-master-general of Nova Scotia and its dependencies.

6. Sir Robert Calder, knight, captain in the royal navy, and of Southwick, Hants, a baronet.

18. Brevet. To be colonels in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as their respective regiments of militia shall remain embodied for actual service: colonel Joseph Holden Strutt, of the supplementary battalion of Essex militia; colonel lord Harewood, of a supplementary regiment of Yorkshire West Riding militia; colonel Walter Fawkes, of ditto; colonel sir George Cooke, bart. of ditto.

Staff. James Bowie, gent. assistant-commissary of stores and provisions in the Leeward Islands.

25. Staff. Col. Francis Fuller, of the 59th foot, brigadier-general in the island of Newfoundland.—Captain Charles Doyle, of the 87th foot, major of brigade to the forces.—Capt. Norman McLeod, of the late 95th foot, major of brigade to the forces in South Britain, vice Wood, promoted.

Sept. 1. Brevet. Captain Claus Pell, of the 17th foot, major in the army.

11. Staff. Capt. James Gambier, of the 1st regiment of life-guards, major of brigade to the forces.

14. Robert Mann, esq. rear-admiral of the red, one of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, vice lord Hugh Seymour, resigned.

16. Staff. To be brigadier-generals in the Leeward Islands only, colonel Charles Green, of the 30th foot, and colonel Thomas Brady,

of the royal artillery.—To be brigadier-general in Portugal only, colonel Baldwin Leighton, of the 46th foot.

18. Brevet. Capt. Edward Webber, of the late 90th foot, major in the army.—To be colonels in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as their respective regiments shall remain embodied for actual service, col. Robert Crowe, of the 2d North York militia, and lieutenant-colonel-commandant James Lowther, of the Westmoreland militia.

25. Brèvet. To be colonels in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as their respective regiments shall remain embodied for actual service, col. Thomas Glyn, of the North Middlesex militia, and colonel John Morrison, of the South Middlesex militia.

Staff. William Whitmore, gent. assistant-commissary of stores and provisions to the forces in the Leeward Islands.

28. William Shaw, lord Cathcart, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy-council.

Oct. 6. Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. rear-admiral of the blue, created baron Nelson of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe, county Norfolk.

15. John Marill, esq. to be a commissioner of the royal navy, vice Hunt.

22. Brevet. To be colonels in army, and to take rank as such so long only as their respective regts. of militia shall remain embodied for actual service: colonel Ed. and lord Stanley, of the 1st regiment of the Royal Lancashire supplementary militia; colonel sir Henry-Philip Hoghton, bart. of the 2d regiment of the said militia; colonel Le Gendre Pierre Starkie, of the 3d regiment of the said militia; and colonel Peter Patten, of the 4th regiment of the said militia.

(M 2)

Staff

Staff. Captain George Peter, of the 50th foot, major of brigade to the forces in the island of Newfoundland.

23. Brevet. Capt. Thomas Inglis, on the half-pay of the late 126th foot, major in the army.

24. Charles earl of Harrington, sworn of his majesty's most hon. privy-council.

27. Sir William Scott, knight, his majesty's advocate general, judge of the high court of admiralty, vice sir James Marriott, resigned.

27. Brevet. Colonel Lewis, lord Sondes, of the 3d regiment of Kent militia, colonel in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as the said regiment of militia shall remain embodied for actual service.

Garrisons. Lieutenant-general sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. governor of Fort George and Fort Augustus, in North Britain, vice Hodgson, deceased. — General sir William Medows, K. B. lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight, vice Abercromby.

31. Sir William Scott, knight, sworn of his majesty's most hon. privy-council.

31. Dr. John Nicholl, his majesty's advocate-general, vice sir William Scott, knighted.

Nov. 3. Staff. To be majors of brigade to the forces in South Britain: captain-lieutenant Frederick Hardyman, of the royal fusileers; and hon. captain William Moleworth, of the 46th foot, vice Gordon, who resigns.

6. Charles Lock, esq. appointed his majesty's consul-general at Naples; and Lewis Drunna, esq. consul at Memel.

13. Brevet. Lieut.-col. George-Frederick Koehler, of the royal artillery, brigadier-general in the dominions of the grand signior only.

Staff. Colonel Edward Hewgill, of the Coldstream guards, deputy barrack-master general to his majesty's forces, vice Tayler, who retires.

13. Joseph Hunt, esq. a commissioner for conducting the transport-service, and for the care and custody of prisoners of war.

13. Benjamin Moodie, esq. his majesty's consul to the States of North and South Carolina and Georgia.

17. Brevet. To be majors in the dominions of the grand signior only: captain Charles Holloway, of the royal engineers; captain Robert Hope, of the royal artillery; captain-lieutenant Thomas Dodd, of the royal artillery; capt.-lieut. Robert Fead, of the royal artillery; and capt.-lieut. Richard Fletcher, of the royal engineers.—To be captains in the dominions of the grand signior only: lieut. Thomas Lacey, of the royal engineers; and lieutenant William M. Leake, of the royal artillery.

27. Brevet. Colonel Kynaston Powel, of the 2d Shropshire regiment of militia, to be colonel in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as the said regiment of militia shall remain embodied for actual service. Capt. sir James Buntin, of the 3d West-India regiment, to be major in the army.

Staff Lieutenant-general Richard Grenville, to be commandant of the garrison of Plymouth, in the absence of the governor.—Lieut. colonel Albert Gledstanes, of the 57th foot, to be quarter-master-general to the forces in the Leeward Islands, vice Cameron, deceased.—William Harris, gentleman, to be assistant commissary of stores, provisions, and forage, to the forces serving in Portugal.—Paymasters of recruiting districts: William

William Disney, esq. vice Bensley, who resigns; and James-William Lukin, esq. vice Laton, who resigns.

Dec. 4. Brevet. Capt. Thomas Oldfield, of the marines, to be major in the army.

Staff. Captain John Balcomb, of 1st dragoon-guards, to be major of brigade to the forces.

5. Appointment of Harry Grant, esq. to be consul from the United States of America at the port of Leith, approved by his majesty.

5. Right hon. Thomas Grenville, sworn of his majesty's most hon. privy-council.

8. Captain Richard Neate, of 57th foot, to be major in the army.

12. Edward Berry, esq. captain in the royal navy, knighted.

25. Rev. Samuel Ryder Weston, B. D. recommended by the king to be elected a canon-residentary of St. Paul's, vice Jeffreys, deceased.—Reverend Charles Morris, M. A. appointed a prebendary of Canterbury, vice Weston, resigned.

19. Robert, visc. Castlereagh, sworn of his majesty's most hon. privy-council.

29. Right Rev. Thomas Lewis O'Beirne, bishop of Offory, promoted to the see of Meath, vice Maxwell, deceased.

29. Brevet. Capt. William Gifford, of the 26th foot, to be major in the army.—To be colonels in the army, and to take rank as such so long only as their respective regiments of militia shall remain embodied for actual service: honourable colonel Thomas Onslow, of the 2d regiment of Surrey militia; and colonel John Crewe, of the 2d regiment of Cheshire militia.

SHERIFFS appointed by his Majesty in Council for the Year 1798.

Berks, Richard Palmer, of Hurst, esq.

Bedfordshire, John Fox, of Dean, esq.

Bucks, John Penn, of Stoke Park, esq.

Cumberland, Sir Rich. Hodson of Carlisle, knight.

Cheshire, Robert Hibbert, of Berties, esq.

Cambridge and Hunt'sh. John Tharpe, of Chippenham, esq.

Devonshire, Arthur Tremaine, of Sydenham, esq.

Dorsetshire, Edw. Berkely Portman, of Brianstone, esq.

Derbyshire, John Leaper Newton, of Derby, esq.

Essex, John Perry, of Moorhall, esq.

Gloucestershire, Thomas Vernon Delphin, of Eysford, esq.

Hertfordshire, Felix Calvert, of Hunsdon-house, esq.

Herefordshire, John Stedman, of Bosbury, esq.

Kent, John Plumtree, of Fredville, esq.

Leicestershire, Renue Payne, of Dunton Bassett, esq.

Lincolnshire, postponed.

Monmouthshire, Joshua Morgan, of Llanwenarth, esq.

Northumberland, Adam Askew, of Ellington, esq.

Northamptonsh. Thomas Reeve Thornton, of Brock-hall, esq.

Norfolk, George Stone, of Bedenham, esq.

Nottinghamsh. Nath. Stubbins, of Holme Pierrepont, esq.

Oxfordsh. John Atkins Wright, of Oxford, esq.

Rutlandshire, William Sharrard, of Langham, esq.

Shropshire, Andrew Corbett, of Shawberry-park, esq.

Somersetshire, Samuel Rodbard, of Ever Creech, esq.

Staffordshire, Richard Dyot, of Freeford, esq.

Suffolk, John Sheppard, of Campsey Ash, esq.

Southampton, Richard Meyler,
of Crawley, esq.

Surrey, James Trotter, of Ep-
som, esq.

Suffex, Richard Thomas Streat-
field, of Uckfield, esq.

Warwickshire, Robert Harvey
Mallery, of Woodcot, esq.

Worcestersh. John Addinbrooke
Addinbrooke, of Woolaston-hall,
esq.

Wilts, John Bennet, of Pithouse,
esq.

Yorkshire, Sir Thomas Pilkington,
of Cheviotte, bart.

SOUTH WALES.

Caermarthen, John Morgan, of
the Furnace, Caermarthen, esq.

Pembroke, John Tasker, of Up-
ton-castle, esq.

Cardigan, Pryce Loveden, of
Gogerthen, esq.

Glamorgan, Samuel Richardfon,
of Hensol, esq.

Brecon, John Lloyd, of Dincis,
esq.

Radnor, John Benn Walsh, of
Kevenllece, esq.

NORTH WALES.

Caernarvon, sir Thomas Mostyn,
of Gloddeath, bart.

Anglesea, William Evans, of Glen
Claw, esq.

Merioneth, Rob. Watkin Wynne,
of Cwinmeer, esq.

Montgomery, Ralph Leake, of
Criggion, esq.

Denbighshire, John Jones, of
Penybrin, esq.

Flintshire, John Jones, of St.
Asaph, esq.

SHERIFF *appointed by his Royal
Highness the Prince of Wales, in
Council, for the Year 1798.*

Cornwall, James Buller, of Shil-
lingham, esq.

PUBLIC PAPERS.

*His Majesty's most gracious Speech on
provoquing the Parliament, June
29, 1798.*

My lords and gentlemen,

BY the measures adopted during the present session, you have amply fulfilled the solemn and unanimous assurances which I received from you at its commencement.

The example of your firmness and constancy has been applauded and followed by my subjects in every rank and condition in life: a spirit of voluntary and ardent exertion, diffused through every part of the kingdom, has strengthened and confirmed our internal security; the same sentiments have continued to animate my troops of every description; and my fleets have met the menaces of invasion by blocking up all our enemies in their principal ports.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

The extensive and equitable scheme of contribution, by which so large a share of our expenses will be defrayed within the year, has defeated the expectations of those who had vainly hoped to exhaust our means, and to destroy our public credit. You have been enabled to avail yourselves of farther resources

from a commerce increased in extent and vigour, notwithstanding the difficulties of war; and have had the singular satisfaction of deriving, at the same moment, large additional aid from individual exertions of unexampled zeal, liberality, and patriotism.

The provision which has been made for the redemption of the land tax, has also established a system which, in its progressive operation, may produce the happiest consequences, by the increase of our resources, the diminution of our debt, and the support of public credit.

My lords and gentlemen,

The designs of the disaffected, carried on in concert with our inveterate enemies, have been unremittingly pursued; but have been happily and effectually counteracted in this kingdom by the general zeal and loyalty of my subjects.

In Ireland they have broken out into the most criminal acts of open rebellion. Every effort has been employed on my part to subdue this dangerous spirit, which is equally hostile to the interests and safety of every part of the British empire. I cannot too strongly commend the unshaken fidelity and valour of my regular, fencible, and

militia forces in Ireland; and that determined spirit with which my yeomanry and volunteer forces of that kingdom have stood forward in defence of the lives and properties of their fellow-subjects, and in support of the lawful government.

The striking and honourable proof of alacrity and public spirit, which for many of my fencible and militia regiments in this kingdom have manifested on this occasion, has already received the fullest testimony of the approbation of parliament.

This conduct, personally so honourable to the individuals, affords the strongest pledge, both of the military ardour which actuates this valuable part of our national defence, and of their affectionate concern for the safety and happiness of Ireland, which are essentially connected with the general interests of the British empire.

With the advantage of this support, and after the distinguished and important success which has recently attended the operations of my arms against the principal force of the rebels, I trust the time is fast approaching, when those now seduced from their allegiance will be brought to a just sense of the guilt they have incurred, and will entitle themselves to forgiveness, and to that protection which it is my constant wish to afford to every class and condition of my subjects, who manifest their desire to pay a due obedience to the laws.

This temporary interruption of tranquillity, and all its attendant calamities, must be attributed to those pernicious principles which have been industriously propagated in that country, and which, wherever they have prevailed, have never failed to produce the most disastrous effects.

With such warnings before us, sensible of the danger which we are called upon to repel, and of the blessings we have to preserve, let us continue firmly united in a determined resistance to the designs of our enemies, and in the defence of that constitution which has been found by experience to insure to us, in so eminent a degree, public liberty, national strength, and the security and comfort of all classes of the community.

It is only by perseverance in this line of conduct, that we can hope, under the continuance of that Divine protection which we have so abundantly experienced, to conduct this arduous contest to a happy issue, and to maintain, undiminished, the security, honour, and lasting prosperity of the country.

The lord chancellor then, by his majesty's command, prorogued the parliament to the 8th of August.

Protest on the Duke of Leinster's Motion in the House of Lords, June 27th, 1798.

DISSENTIENT,

Because, the house having thought fit to reject the various motions respecting the calamitous situation of Ireland, which have been submitted to their consideration, in the first instance for inquiry—in the second, for lenity and conciliation—and in the last, for putting an immediate stop at least to the rigorous proceedings of the army in Ireland, where, under the name of a system of coercion, we have reason to fear that atrocious cruelties have been practised—we think it our duty to record the nature of the evidence on which we have proceeded, and on which our conviction of the truth

truth

truth of the facts is founded; and on that evidence to appeal in our own justification to our country, to the world, and to posterity. We affirm, that the facts are undisputed, that the evidence of them is irresistible, and that the effects produced by this barbarous system convict the authors and advisers of such a total want of wisdom, even for their own pretended purposes, as can only be exceeded by the shocking cruelty of the principles avowed, and of the practice recommended by them. We shall state some of the documents we refer to, in the order of time in which they have appeared, in order to shew that this system of coercion has not been hastily resorted to on the spur of an instant necessity, but that it was deliberately resolved on long before it could be justified or palliated by any of the pretences or causes which have since been assigned in defence of it.

‘Dublin Castle, March 3, 1798.’

‘His excellency further authorises you to employ force against any any persons assembled in arms, not legally authorised so to be, and to disperse all tumultuous assemblies of persons, though they may not be in arms, without waiting for the sanction and assistance of the civil authority, if, in your opinion, the peace of the realm, and the safety of his majesty’s faithful subjects, may be endangered by waiting for such authority.’

(Signed) ‘THOMAS PELHAM.’

On the 26th of February, 1798, sir Ralph Abercromby declared in public orders, that ‘the very disgraceful frequency of courts martial, and the many complaints of irregularities in the conduct of the troops in that kingdom, had too unfortunately proved the army to be in a state of licentiousness,

which must render it formidable to every one but the enemy.’

On the 18th of April, 1798, the following order was issued by major-general Duff:

‘The commander in chief gives this public notice, that the lord-lieutenant and council have issued orders to him to quarter troops, to press horses and carriages, to demand forage and provisions, and to hold courts-martial for the trial of offences of all descriptions, civil and military, with the power of confirming and carrying into execution the sentences of such courts-martial, and to issue proclamations.

‘The commander in chief calls on all the general officers to procure of the magistrates the best accounts they can give of the number of arms taken from the yeomanry and the well-affected, of arms that have been concealed, and of pikes that have been made, which are to be recovered and taken possession of by the military.

‘They are also to communicate to the people through the priests, and by one or two men selected from each town-land, the purport of the following notice:

‘That the order, if complied with, will be a sign of their general repentance; and not only forgiveness will follow, but protection.

‘That they must be sensible that it is infinitely better for them to remain at home, quietly minding their own affairs, than committing acts which must bring on the ruin of themselves and their families.

‘As it will be impossible in some degree to prevent the innocent from suffering with the guilty, the innocent have means of redress, by informing against those who have engaged in unlawful associations, and robbing houses of arms and money.

‘The people must be very ignorant

rant not to know, notwithstanding the fair promises of the French, that they have first deceived, and then plundered every country into which they have come. And they are therefore forewarned, that, in case of invasion from the French, if they should attempt to join the enemy, or communicate with him, or join in a y insurrection, they will be immediately put to death, and their houses and properties destroyed.

‘The general officers call on the people to know, why they should be less attached to the government now than they were a year ago, when they showed so much loyalty in assisting his majesty’s troops to oppose the landing of the French? Is it not because they have been seduced by wicked men?’

‘Why should they think themselves bound by oaths into which they have been seduced or terrified?’

‘The people are requested to bring in their arms to the magistrates or commanding officers in the neighbourhood, who have directions to receive them; and no questions will be asked.

(Signed) ‘JAMES DUFF,
Major-general.’

On the 7th of May, 1798, the following orders were issued by lieutenant-general Sir James Steward:

‘Whereas it has been represented to lieutenant-general Sir James Steward, that in some parts of the country, where it has been necessary to station troops at free-quarters for the restoration of public tranquillity, that general subscriptions of money have been entered into by the inhabitants to purchase provisions for the troops, by which means the end proposed, of making the burthen fall as much as possible on the guilty, is entirely de-

feated, by making it fall in a light proportion on the whole, and thereby easing and protecting the guilty; it has been thought proper to direct, that wherever the practice has been adopted, or shall be attempted, the general officers, commanding divisions of the southern district, shall immediately double, treble, or quadruple the number of soldiers so stationed, and shall send out regular foraging parties to provide provisions for the troops, in the quantities mentioned in the former notice, bearing date the 27th day of April, 1798; and that they shall move them from station through the district or barony, until arms are surrendered, and tranquillity be perfectly restored, and until it is reported to the general officers, by the gentlemen holding landed property, and those who are employed in collecting the public revenues and tithes, that all rents, taxes, and tithes are completely paid up.’

Adjutant-General’s Office, Cork,

May 7, 1798.

On the 11th of June, 1798, major-general Nugent, after holding out certain offers and terms to the insurgents, proceeds to declare,

‘That, should the above injunctions not be complied with within the time specified, major-general Nugent will proceed to set fire to and totally destroy the town of Killybeg, Killybegh, Ballynahinch, Sallitfield, and every cottage and farmhouse in the vicinity of those places, carry off the stock and cattle, and put every one to the sword who may be found in arms.

‘It particularly believes all the well-affected persons who are now with the rebels from constraint, and who, it is known, form a considerable part of their numbers, to exert themselves in having these terms complied with, as it is the only opportunity

portunity there will be of rescuing themselves and properties from the indiscriminate vengeance of an army, necessarily let loose upon them.'

But, finally, the document which appears to us the most important of all, and to which we earnestly invite and press the attention of the house, is a public order issued about the middle of the present month of June, 1798, in the following words:

'Major-general Morrison requests that officers commanding corps will give the strictest orders to prevent setting fire to houses or buildings of any kind, a mode of punishment that can lead only to the most pernicious consequences, and that seldom or ever falls on the guilty, but, on the contrary, on the landlord, the wife and children of the criminals, who, however iniquitous the husband or father, ought always to be spared and protected.

'And he has likewise received orders from lieutenant-general Lake, that free-quarters are no longer to be permitted, neither are foraging parties to be allowed to go out, unless under the care of an officer, who is to be responsible for every act, in order that the friends of government, the helpless and infirm, may not be involved in one indiscriminate mass of destruction with the rebellious and ill-disposed.'

The prohibition contained in this order, wise and humane as it is, is equivalent to a history of all the horrible transactions it alludes to; and establishes the truth of them by evidence which cannot be disputed or suspected, and also confirms in the strongest terms, and on the irresistible proof derived from practice and experience, that such a mode of punishment "seldom or

ever falls on the guilty, but on women and children, who ought always to be spared and protected," and that its principle, if not only operation and effect, is "to involve the friends of government, the helpless and the infirm, in one mass of destruction with the rebellious and ill-disposed."

BEDFORD.

WENTWORTH FITZWILLIAM.

PONSONBY.

HOLLAND.

ALBEMARLE.

KING.

THANET.

Protest on the same Subject, June 28, 1798.

DISSENTIENT,

1. Because I was shocked that an address to the king, upon so awful a subject as the present state of Ireland should have been rejected, without one single syllable being said by the king's ministers upon the subject.

2. Because I look back with pride to that law which our ancestors obtained, which says "No free man shall be taken, or imprisoned, or disseised of his freehold, or liberties, or free customs, or be outlawed, or exiled, or any otherwise destroyed. Nor will we not pass upon him, nor condemn him, but by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. We will sell to no man, we will not deny or defer to any man, either justice or right." And because I agree with the commentary of that great lawyer, sir Edward Coke, upon this chapter of Magna Charta, wherein he says, "No man destroyed;" that is, fore-judged of life or limb, disinherited, or put to torture

or

or death. And because I think that to flog, picket, and half-hang any of our fellow-subjects, in order to extort confession, is "a putting to torture," and, therefore, not only outrageous to humanity, but directly against Magna Charta, the great corner-stone of our laws and liberties. And whoever have dared to put to torture any of our fellow-subjects in Ireland, or elsewhere, have violated the great charter, have betrayed their country, and ought speedily to be brought to condign punishment for these their treasonable and detestable practices. And whoever have dared openly and publicly to justify torture, upon the ground of policy, deserve the same execrations from their countrymen as have been usually given to the cruelest inquisitors of Rome.

3. Because, whenever our brethren and fellow-subjects in Ireland, or elsewhere, are flogged, picketed, half-hanged, and otherwise tortured, in order to extort confession, I hold it to be the bounden duty of every man, in his different station, to use all the legal means in his power to declare his abhorrence of such diabolical and tyrannical measures.

4. Because I hold, that when an Irishman is tortured, an Englishman is tortured; for the same men, who, in violation of the laws of their country, and of every dictate of humanity, dare to put Irishmen to torture, will not hesitate, when they think it expedient, to put Englishmen to torture also.

5. Because it is a moral truth that cannot be denied, that if men have been driven, by flogging and by tortures, contrary to all law and reason, into open resistance, the guilt and consequences of that resistance are imputable to those who

flog and torture contrary to all law and reason, and not to those who are thereby driven to resistance.

6. Because, to flog and torture men into open resistance, for the sake of employing a power in the hands of those who flog and torture, to crush that resistance, and thereby to make themselves more secure, is not only a refinement of cruelty, against which law, reason, justice, humanity, and nature, cry aloud; but which the experience of all times teaches us will never answer.

7. Because the history of the world tells us, that it is no small matter which provokes a people to throw off their allegiance; and that when they have thrown off their allegiance, attention to their just demands, and protection in the enjoyment of their rights, liberties, and properties; are the only means by which an allegiance worth having can be recovered.

8. Because I think the times call for a declaration of these principles; and that to act upon them is the only method of healing the present discontents, and preventing the speedy ruin of our country.

OXFORD AND MORTIMER.

Protest against the Assessed Tax-Bill, House of Lords, January 18, 1798.

The question was put, that this bill be committed. It was agreed in the affirmative.

DISSENTIENT,

Because we conceive, that in the present circumstances no grant of money by parliament can alone be sufficient to extricate the country from its alarming and critical situation.

When

When the exigencies of the state are such, as to demand large supplies from the people, our duty is not confined to the bare consideration of the necessity of the case, or the mode of levying the money. We are not from the pressure of circumstances, and the approach of danger, hastily to concur in laying additional burdens on our fellow-subjects, without insuring to the public a wise application of the money so raised, and with out due precautions for directing the efforts of the people to their only legitimate object, the benefit of the community. A neglect of this, the most important of all parliamentary duties must produce, and, in our opinions, it has already produced, consequences the most fatal to the dignity of the nation, the stability of the government, and the interests of the people. In the unconditional compliance with the demands of the executive government, again proposed as the remedy, we perceive the real and fatal source of the evil. Year after year his majesty's ministers have grounded their application to parliament upon the urgency of the occasion, and the extraordinary exigencies of the state. To satisfy their demands, to enable them to encounter the dangers, and remove the difficulties in which we were involved, every article of luxury or convenience has been taxed, the resources of the country have been exhausted, and sums unparalleled in history have been entrusted to their disposal; yet, year after year, the occasion has become more urgent, the exigencies more pressing, the difficulties more alarming, and the dangers more immediate. The security of the nation has been shaken in the same proportion as the prosperity of the country has been im-

paired, external danger has kept pace with internal distress, and the exertions which have impoverished the people, and shaken our credit, have purchased nothing but the loss of national honour, the defection of allies, and the failure of every great object of the war.

If the whole force of Great Britain and Ireland, aided by grants lavished beyond the example of the most improvident times, assisted by the most powerful monarchs of Europe, has proved insufficient in the hands of ministers to secure the blessings of peace, or even to avert the present awful circumstances of the country, it seems inconsistent with reason to expect that the painful efforts of an empire, whose means are exhausted by taxation, whose spirits are damped by failure, and whose affections are in part alienated by oppression, can, without a single ally, under the direction of the same men, resist with effect a powerful and exasperated enemy, elated with success, strengthened by conquest, and supported by the united powers of Holland and Spain. In this situation of affairs, to persevere in the system which has produced it, to confide in the ministers who, with the aid of so many millions, have been unable to avert it, evinces, in our opinion, a total disregard of the common maxims of prudence, a wanton rejection of the lessons of experience, and a determined neglect of the most important of our parliamentary duties. Under the persuasion, therefore, that the dangers with which we are now threatened are the result of force, directed to objects at once impracticable and foreign to the interests of this country; that they are the necessary consequences of a misapplication of the public money, and the natural

natural fruits of the incapacity and profusion of those to whom it has been improvidently entrusted; we deemed it our duty not to sanction any grant to the executive government, until a pledge was given to the house, by the removal of his majesty's ministers, of a complete alteration in his councils. We held it neither just to impose, nor reasonable to require, any additional sacrifices from our fellow-subjects, until some prospect was held out to the people of a reform of that house which had granted, and a censure of those ministers who have lavished, sums so enormous, without any benefit resulting to the community. We thought, that while his majesty's affairs were conducted by those who originally engaged in this calamitous contest, and who can neither carry on war or negotiations with honour, advantage, or success, no grant of money by parliament, no sacrifices on the part of the people, could afford a reasonable hope that the blessings of peace would be speedily restored, or permanently secured. We imagined, that until some earnest was given of a radical alteration of the system of terror and coercion in Ireland, of the repeal of the two bills, the one intituled, "An act for the safety and preservation of his majesty's person and government against treasonable and seditious practices and attempts;" and the other intituled, "An act for the more effectually preventing seditious meetings and assemblies," of economy in public expenditure, and diminution of the enormous patronage and influence of the crown, we were not warranted in expecting that cheerful co-operation of the people, which, being at once the indication and result of a reciproc-

cal confidence between the government and the governed, can only be restored by the restoration of the ancient and happy practice of a constitution undisfigured by coercive laws—of a parliament speaking the sense of the people—and a ministry dependent on the voice of the parliament.

Because it appears to us, that any attempt to raise the supplies within the year, in the present exhausted state of the country, must be attended with the greatest difficulty and danger.

Because, were we to allow that the principle of raising the supplies by contribution, instead of loan, was just, wise, and expedient, yet, under the present ministers, it would appear to us attended with the utmost danger, as the real expenses of the year have generally exceeded, by nearly one half, their calculation; and thus any regulations for the equal distribution of the burdens, which were adopted upon the first calculation, might be rendered ineffectual by subsequent and most extensive demands.

Because, if the bill is intended as a tax upon expenditure, its retrospective operation is arbitrary and cruel in the extreme, and altogether repugnant to the usages of our ancestors, the faith of civilised governments, and the common dictates of humanity and justice. If it is intended as a tax upon income, in our opinion the criterion proposed is objectionable and inadequate; and, above all, as income is of various descriptions, sometimes arising from permanent and disposable capital, sometimes from precarious or temporary possessions, and sometimes from labour, talents, or industry, we deem any attempt to proportion the burden to the income in itself unjust, unequal, and

and impolitic. If it is intended as a tax upon property, neither in the original criterion, viz. the assessed taxes of 1793, nor in the proposed relief, do we recognise any just principles of taxation, or perceive any fair or adequate method suggested for the impartial distribution of the burden.

Because the relief proposed in the bill to those who may, by the increase of their assessed taxes, be liable to pay more than the tenth of their income, requires a disclosure of their pecuniary circumstances, which is contrary to the customs and prejudices of Englishmen, and repugnant to the principles of the constitution; and which to persons engaged in commerce or trade must be attended with yet greater inconveniences than the payment of more than the tenth of their income. Furthermore, this regulation appears to us an indirect breach of the faith so often and sacredly pledged to the stockholder; for, should the whole of the income of any individual claiming this relief consist in a dividend upon stock, a tenth of that income is immediately sacrificed, and the dividend, in violation of the faith of the parliament and the nation, diminished one-tenth by the intervention of government.

Because the operation of this bill is not confined to a definite period of time, but, by the most wanton violation of justice, remains in force till a certain sum is produced; thus exacting from the honest the deficiencies which may have been occasioned by accidental circumstances, by the designs or the distress of individuals, by the favour or the neglect of the collectors.

(Signed) HOLLAND.
OXFORD.

Message from his Majesty to Parliament, delivered by Mr. Dundas, April 20, 1798.

G. R.

His majesty thinks proper to acquaint the house of commons, that, from various advices received by his majesty, it appears that preparations are making on the part of the French government, by the embarkation of troops and warlike stores, and by the increasing activity of the fleets in the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland, with the design of invading his majesty's dominions; and that in such design they have been encouraged by the communications and correspondence of certain traitorous and disaffected societies in these kingdoms.

To render fruitless such designs, his majesty places the firmest reliance on the bravery of his fleets and armies, and on the zeal, patriotism, and unshaken courage of his people, which has ever been manifested in their general exertions for the defence of the country, and which are more than ever necessary when called upon to defend all that is most dear to them.

His majesty, in pursuance of the act of parliament for raising a body of cavalry, has thought it right to give directions for such regiments of cavalry as are embodied to be drawn out; and it is his intention to order such parts of the supplementary militia as are not yet embodied to be forthwith embodied and drawn out, in pursuance of the communication already made to the house of commons on this subject.

His majesty thinks it incumbent on him to make the fullest use of the means provided by parliament for the defence of the country;

But

but he also feels it indispensibly necessary to desire the house of commons to consider, without delay, of such further measures as may be necessary to enable his majesty to defeat the machinations of the wicked and traitorous persons within this realm, and to guard against the designs of its enemies abroad and at home.

Speech of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland on opening the Session of Parliament, January 16, 1798.

My lords and gentlemen,

I have his majesty's commands to assemble you in parliament at this important period, and to resort to your deliberation and advice.

When I reflect on the tranquillity which attended the late general election, I have just ground to believe that the wisdom and firmness which were manifested by the late parliament were felt and approved by the nation at large, and that your conduct will be actuated by similar principles in defence of our happy constitution.

It must have given you great concern to learn that his majesty's endeavours to restore the blessings of peace have been again frustrated by the desperate ambition of the French government. I have his majesty's commands to lay before you his royal declaration, and the various papers which passed in the course of the late negotiation, in which the magnanimity and moderation of his majesty were so eminently displayed, as to leave no pretext or colour for the insidious conduct and fallacious statements of the enemy.

His majesty relies with confidence on the spirit of his people of Ireland, who are sensible of their duty to their God, their sovereign, and their country. He knows they are incapable of being intimidated by any threats, or deluded by any offers; and he implicitly depends on the valour of his regular and militia forces, the active loyalty of the district corps, the courage of the nation, and the prowess of his fleets and armies, for defeating every hostile attempt which may be made on this kingdom.

The late signal victory of admiral lord Duncan over the Dutch squadron, achieved on their own coasts with such professional skill and heroic gallantry, has not only added fresh lustre to the glory of his majesty's navy, but has given new strength and security to all his majesty's dominions.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

I have ordered the public accounts, and the estimates for the ensuing year, to be laid before you; I lament that additional burdens are still necessary, in order to maintain the honour and security of the empire in the present exigency; and although from the state of preparation in which this kingdom stands, some of the demands of former periods will not recur, yet I fear the general expense of the ensuing year will not admit of any considerable reduction. When you reflect on all you have to preserve, and all you have to expect from the enemy you have to combat with, I doubt not the supplies will be cheerfully granted. I shall endeavour, on my part, that they shall be faithfully applied.

My lords and gentlemen,
In consequence of the addresses
of

Of the houses of lords and commons in May last, I directed immediate and vigorous measures to be taken for repressing disaffection in the northern parts of the kingdom; and for restoring security and confidence to the loyal and well-disposed; the effect of which has been manifested in the return of subordination and industry in that quarter. Other attempts have since been made by the leaders of the disaffected in some parts of the midland and southern districts with too much success; and emissaries have been employed, and publications have been circulated by them to revive religious animosities, and to open prospects of plunder, by which means the lower classes have been excited to commit acts of the most horrid outrage and barbarity. I have to lament that the diligence and activity of the magistrates, though assisted by the troops which have been ordered into that part of the kingdom, have not yet been able entirely to put a stop to those disturbances. Constant vigilance and unremitting exertions continue to be necessary when all means are tried to excite the people to rebellion and revolt—when a systematic plan of assassination is adopted and encouraged, and when the most audacious attempts are made to impede and prevent the administration of justice.

Amidst your exertions for the defence of the kingdom, I must not omit to recommend to you not to relax your attention to its commerce, its agriculture, and its manufactures, and especially to that of the linen; nor will your liberality be less conspicuous in continuing that protection to the protestant charter schools, and the other charitable institutions under which they have so long flourished.

1798.

His majesty has commanded me to declare to you, that his firm resolution is taken in the present arduous contest. He will not be wanting to his people, but with them will stand or fall in the defence of their religion, and in the preservation of the independence, laws, and liberties of his kingdoms.

It will be a source of infinite satisfaction to my mind, if, in the execution of my duty, I can contribute to support the generous determination of my sovereign, and maintain the safety and prosperity of his people. I rely upon your advice and co-operation; and, aided by them, I look forward with confidence to a happy issue of the contest in which we are engaged.

Address of the Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, to the Lord Lieutenant, on presenting certain Bills, March 24, 1798.

May it please your excellency,

Large as the supplies of the last session were beyond all former grants, these which the commons now offer to his majesty are not inferior; they go to the fullest extent of every service proposed by government, and are given with unanimity and zeal which mark the unalterable determination of this kingdom to stand or fall with Great Britain, and show that our vigour rises as the vaunting menaces of the enemy increase.

With the same unanimity we have voted the maintenance of an army far greater than was ever kept up by this kingdom during any preceding war; and we have continued to them the augmentation of pay which was granted by the last parliament, and which your excellency did justly state to that parliament

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liament to be a seasonable and honourable acknowledgment on their part of the steadiness and loyalty of that army; the present parliament feels the same sentiments towards them. Repeated experience of the order and alacrity which they have shown on every occasion that has offered, confirms his majesty's faithful commons in those sentiments; and we join most cordially with his majesty in his firm reliance on the valour of his regular and militia forces in this kingdom, which his majesty has been pleased to express in his gracious answer to our address this session.

While the courage, the vigour, and the discipline of those forces must render them formidable to the enemy, and ensure his defeat, should he be desperate enough to attempt invasion, their zeal, and that of the yeomen, to put down rebellion, to crush insurrection, and to assist the executive power in protecting the loyal, the innocent, and well-disposed, affords the most convincing proof of their ardent and unshakeable attachment to the best sovereign, and best constitution, that ever blessed a free and happy people. We are free—and we will not tamely give up our happiness. The loyal spirit of the nation is able to crush rebellion to atoms wherever it shall dare to show itself; and, with the firmness which so strongly marks your excellency's character, with the constant success which has attended every vigorous measure that necessity has called on your excellency to adopt, we have nothing to fear. We have, indeed, to lament, that traitorous conspiracies can still continue, and that any men can be found in the land so lost to every sense of patriotism, of humanity, of duty to themselves, their country, and their

God, as to degrade the nation and the name of Irishman, by acts of ingratitude, barbarity, and assassination, which would debase a savage—acts which call for the heavy hand of justice, and which the ordinary power of the laws has proved inadequate to prevent the melancholy and frequent repetition of.

But while we lament such a mortifying calamity, we have the satisfaction of seeing how little its malignant influence, or the efforts of an exasperated and revengeful enemy has affected our commercial prosperity.

Notwithstanding the largeness of the supplies, we have continued the usual bounties and encouragement to the trade, the agriculture, and the manufactures of the kingdom; and we see with sincere gratification the desirable effects of those encouragements, in the great increase of trade during the war, in the general confidence which attends private as well as public credit, in the unusual plenty which our agriculture supplies, and in the prosperous state of all our manufactures, but most particularly of our great staple the linen.

Speech of his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, on proroguing the Irish Parliament, Oct. 8, 1798.

My lords and gentlemen,

I have the satisfaction of acquainting you that I have received the king's commands to release you from your long and fatiguing attendance in parliament; and I am ordered to thank you, in his majesty's name, for the unshaken firmness and magnanimity with which you have met the most trying difficulties, and with which the measures have been planned which

which you have adopted for the preservation of your country.

I offer you my most sincere congratulations on the glorious victory which has been obtained by his majesty's squadron under the command of sir Horatio Nelson, over the French fleet in the Mediterranean, which not only reflects the highest honour on the officers and seamen by whom it has been achieved, but affords a prospect of the most beneficial consequences to the future interests of the British empire.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

I am commanded to convey to you his majesty's particular thanks for the supplies which you have so liberally granted, and by which you have manifested both the extent of the resources which this kingdom possesses, and the spirit with which they are employed by the commons of Ireland for the preservation of the state.

His majesty laments the necessity which calls for the imposition of fresh burdens on his majesty's subjects; but he trusts that they will see how much their present safety and their future happiness depend on their exertions in the arduous contest in which they are engaged: and he assures his faithful commons, that the aids which they have afforded shall be carefully applied to the great object of maintaining the honour and promoting the interests of their country.

My lords and gentlemen,

The circumstances which have taken place since its commencement must render this session ever memorable.

The foulest and darkest conspiracy was formed and long carried on by the implacable enemy of these realms for the total extinction of the constitution, and for

the separation of his majesty's kingdom of Ireland from Great Britain. By the unremitting vigilance of my predecessor in this government, the treason has been detected, the apprehension of the principal conspirators, and the salutary measures wisely adopted, checked its progress; and through your sagacious diligence it has been developed in all its parts, and traced to all its sources.

A dangerous and wicked rebellion, the consequence of that conspiracy, has been in a great measure subdued, and the attempt of our inveterate enemy to rekindle the flame of civil discord, by sending a force into this country, has terminated in defeat.

Religion, that greatest comfort and support of mankind, has been most wickedly perverted to the purpose of inflaming the worst of passions; and the vilest arts have been used to persuade the ignorant and unwary, that in a reign which has been marked by a series of indulgences to all sects of Christians, it is the intention of his majesty's government to oppress, and even to extirpate that description of his majesty's subjects who have received repeated and recent marks of his favour and protection.

The catholics of Ireland cannot but have observed what has been the conduct of those who affect to be their friends, towards the rites and the characters which they venerate, and under whose auspices the persecuted pastors of their church have found an asylum.

Amongst a number of offenders, some most active characters have necessarily been selected as objects of public justice; but in every period of this dangerous conspiracy the lenity of government and of parliament has been conspicu-

ous, and a general act of pardon has recently issued from the royal mercy, for the purposes of affording security to the repentant, and encouraging the deluded to return to their duty.

The vigour and power of his majesty's arms, the loyalty, spirit, and activity of the regular, militia, and yeomanry forces, together with the prompt and cordial assistance of the militia and fencibles of Great Britain, have abundantly proved how vain every attempt must be, either by treachery within, or by force from abroad, to undermine or to overturn our civil and religious establishments.

From the dangers which have surrounded you, and which you have overcome, you must be sensible that your security can only be preserved by persevering vigilance and increasing energy. You will not suffer your efforts to relax; and you may be assured of my zealous endeavours to second your exertions.—Our hopes and our objects are the same, that the deluded may see their error, and the disaffected be reclaimed; but if an endeavour shall be made to abuse the royal mercy, and to form fresh conspiracies in the prospect of impunity, offended justice will then be compelled to extend to the obdurate criminal the full measure of his punishment.

Amidst your measures, either of power, of justice, or of clemency, you have not forgotten to afford consolation and encouragement to the loyal. The means which were adopted for their relief, and the plan which has been devised for the further remuneration of their losses, are highly honourable to your feelings, and must, in every loyal breast, excite emotions of love and gratitude to his country.

Since my arrival in this kingdom I have received the most flattering assurances of your regard and approbation, which command my warmest acknowledgments; and while I feel myself thus encouraged and supported, and reflect on the loyalty which is so generally displayed, and on the force which is intrusted to my direction, I cannot allow myself to doubt of the success of our united endeavours for the welfare of this country.

And then the lord chancellor declared, that it was his excellency the lord lieutenant's pleasure, that this parliament be prorogued to Tuesday the 20th day of November next; and the parliament was accordingly prorogued to Tuesday the 20th day of November next.

From the Dublin Gazette, March 31.

By the Lord Lieutenant and Council of Ireland,

A PROCLAMATION.

CAMDEN.

Whereas a traitorous conspiracy, existing within this kingdom, for the subversion of the authority of his majesty and the parliament, and for the destruction of the established constitution and government, hath considerably extended itself, and hath broken out into acts of open violence and rebellion:

We have therefore, by and with the advice of his majesty's privy council, issued the most direct and positive orders to the officers commanding his majesty's forces, to employ them with the utmost vigour and decision, for the immediate suppression thereof, and also to recover the arms which have been traitorously forced from his majesty's peaceable and loyal subjects, and to disarm the rebels, and all persons disaffected to his majesty's government, by the most summary and effectual measures.

And

And we do hereby strictly charge and command all his majesty's peaceable and loyal subjects, on their allegiance, to aid and assist, to the utmost of their power, his majesty's forces in the execution of their duty, to whom we have given it strictly in command, to afford full protection to them from all acts of violence which shall be attempted against their persons or properties.

Given at the council chamber in Dublin, the 30th day of March, 1798.

Clare, C.
Charles Castiel
W. Tuam
Drogheda
Ormond and Ossory
Shannon
Altamont
Clonmell
Ely
Dillon
Gosford
Pery
O'Neill
Castlereagh
H. Meath
Glentworth
Callan
Tyrawly
John Foster
J. Parnell
H. Cavendish
J. Blaquiére
H. Langrishe
Theo. Jones
Jos. Cooper
D. Latouche
James Fitzgerald
R. Ross
Isaac Corry
Lodge Morres.

God save the king.

17th, 1798, by the Right Hon. Lord Viscount Castlereagh.

Your committee, in reporting upon the papers referred to them, find it necessary to recall the attention of the house to a report of a secret committee of the lords in the year 1793, as also to the reports of secret committees of both houses of the late parliament, presented in the course of the year 1797.

Your committee find that the allegations stated in those reports are fully confirmed by farther evidence and by subsequent events; and the facts they contain, connected with the information arising out of the present inquiry, will enable the house to trace, in all its parts, the conspiracy carried on by the party styling themselves United Irishmen, from its first appearance under the pretext of reform till it connected itself with the foreign enemy, and broke out into a wide and extended rebellion.

Before your committee proceed to trace the extension and progress of the system of treason since the period of the last report (the organisation of which at that time appeared to have been in a great degree confined to the northern counties, but shortly after extended itself throughout other parts of the kingdom), they are desirous of adverting to the prominent facts established by former inquiries, and to the measures adopted by the government, to meet the dangers which then, and at the period immediately subsequent to the last report, existed in the province of Ulster.

The society under the name of United Irishmen, it appears, was established in the year 1791; its founders held forth what they termed Catholic Emancipation and Par-

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Report from the Committee of Secrecy of the House of Commons in Ireland, presented to the House, July

Reform, as the ostensible object of their union; but it clearly appeared from the letter of Theobald Wolfe Tone, accompanying their original constitution, as transmitted to Belfast for adoption, that, from its commencement, the real purpose of those who were at the head of the institution was to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and to subvert the established constitution of this kingdom: in corroboration of which your committee have annexed to this report several of their early publications, particularly a prospectus of the society which appeared in the beginning of the year 1791: as also the plan of reform which they recommended to the people.

For the first three years their attention was entirely directed to the engaging in their society persons of activity and talents in every quarter of the kingdom; and in preparing the public mind for their future purposes by the circulation of the most seditious publications, particularly the works of Thomas Paine. At this time, however, the leaders were rather cautious of alarming minds not sufficiently ripe for the adoption of their principles by the too open disclosure of the real objects they had in view. In 1795 the test of the society underwent a striking revision; the words in the amended test stand, "a full representation of all the people," omitting the words "in the commons house of parliament;" the reason for which has been admitted by three members of the executive, examined before your committee, to be the better to reconcile reformers and republicans in a common exertion to overthrow the state.

In the summer of 1796 great numbers of persons, principally in

the province of Ulster, had enrolled themselves in this society. About the same period, as will be more fully explained hereafter, a direct communication had been opened by the heads of the party with the enemy, and French assistance was solicited, and promised to be speedily sent, to aid the disaffected of this kingdom.

With a view of being prepared as much as possible to co-operate with the enemy then expected, and in order to counteract the effect of the armed associations of yeomanry established in October 1796, directions were issued by the leaders to the societies to form themselves into military bodies, and to be provided with arms and ammunition.

These directions were speedily obeyed; the societies assumed a military form; and it appears by the original papers seized at Belfast in the month of April 1797, that their numbers at that period, in the province of Ulster alone, were stated to amount to nearly 100,000 men; that they were very largely supplied with fire arms and pikes; that they had some cannon and ammunition, and were diligently employed in the study of military tactics; in short, that nothing was neglected by the party which could enable them to take the field on the arrival of the enemy, or wherever they might receive orders to that effect from their superior officers, whom they were bound by oath to obey.

To deter the well-affected from joining the yeomanry corps, and to render the administration of justice altogether ineffectual, the most active system of terror was put in operation; persons enrolled in the yeomanry, magistrates, witnesses, jurors—in a word, every class and de-

description of people who ventured to support the laws, became objects of the most cruel persecution in their persons, property, and even in the line of their business; and multitudes were compelled to take their illegal oaths, and profess an adherence to the party, as a means of security.

In the latter end of 1796, and beginning of 1797, the loyal inhabitants of Ulster suffered most severely from the depredations of the united Irishmen; throughout the province they were stripped of their arms; the most horrid murders were perpetrated by large bodies of men in open day; and it became nearly impossible to bring the offenders to justice from the inevitable destruction that awaited the witnesses or jurors who dared to perform their duty.

Your committee will now shortly trace the measures resorted to for suppressing these disturbances, and for extending protection to the well affected.

In the summer of 1796, the outrages committed by a banditti, calling themselves defenders, in the counties of Roscommon, Leitrim, Longford, Meath, Westmeath, and Kildare, together with a religious feud prevailing in the county of Armagh, induced the legislature to pass a temporary act of parliament, (36 Geo. 3. c.) generally called the Insurrection Act, by which the lord lieutenant and council were enabled, upon the requisition of seven magistrates of any county assembled at a sessions of the peace, to proclaim the whole or any part thereof to be in a state of disturbance; within which limits this law, giving increased power to the magistracy, was to have operation.

Many districts in Ulster, in which outrages prevailed, occasioned by the

active and persecuting spirit of the united Irishmen, were, in the course of the winter of 1796, and spring of 1797, put under the provisions of the act above mentioned: and your committee have to observe, that, although where the law was put in force with activity by the magistrates, very beneficial consequences were found to result from it; yet the treason was then too deeply rooted to yield to this remedy.

The parliament being assembled in October 1796, the dangerous progress of the treason, and the active preparations of the enemy for the invasion of this kingdom, were announced in the speech from the throne. Bills (37 Geo. 3. c.) were immediately brought in, and passed without delay, for suspending the habeas corpus act, as also for the establishment of the yeomanry:—measures to which your committee feel themselves justified in attributing the salvation of the country; and which, being taken immediately subsequent to the formal alliance concluded between the executive of the union and the French Directory, at once prove the vigilance of government, as also their well-founded confidence in thus entrusting the defence of the kingdom and its constitution to the loyalty of its inhabitants.

Your committee have to observe with great satisfaction, that the estimate for the yeomanry, as first laid before parliament, was for a number not exceeding 20,000—that in the course of six months above 37,000 were arrayed; and that the zeal of the country had so risen with its difficulties, that, during the late rebellion, the yeomanry force exceeded 50,000 men, and might have been increased to a much greater extent. It is unnecessary to recall to the recollection

and gratitude of parliament and of the country, the services they have performed during the unhappy struggle in which we have been engaged, sharing all the hardships and dangers, and performing all the duties, in common with the king's regular and militia forces.

The next measure to which your committee beg leave to point the attention of the house is, the proclamation of the lord lieutenant and council, bearing date the 6th of November, 1796, issued in consequence of the disaffected having adopted a practice of marching in military array, and assembling in large bodies, in some instances to the number of several thousands, under pretence of saving corn, and digging potatoes: but in fact to terrify the peaceable and well-disposed, and to compel them to enter into their treasonable associations.

The same system has since frequently been had recourse to by the united Irishmen in other parts of the kingdom under various pretences, such as funerals, foot-ball meetings, &c. with a view of displaying their strength, giving the people the habit of assembling from great distances upon an order being issued, and making them more accustomed to show themselves openly in support of the cause.

The next measure to which the government was driven by the traitorous excesses of the united Irishmen, and to which your committee beg leave to advert, is the proclamation of lieutenant-general Lake*, then commanding in Ulster, issued on the 13th of March, in consequence of a letter addressed to him by the lord lieutenant's secretary, Mr. Pelham.

The disorders which called for this interposition of military authority are sufficiently set forth in the body of the letter; and your committee have only to observe, that in carrying lieutenant-general Lake's proclamation into effect, no acts of severity whatever were used by the military towards persons concealing or refusing to give up their arms; but that, on the contrary, the search for the arms of the disaffected was conducted with all possible mildness; and that where persons voluntarily brought in their arms, certificates were granted by the magistrates, and assurances given to the people, that their arms would be returned as soon as the country was restored to tranquillity.—It must, however, be observed, that in June following, when a general insurrection was decided on by the party, and upon the point of breaking out in the province of Ulster, more vigorous means of compelling the surrender of arms were had recourse to, under the authority of the proclamation of the 17th of May;—a measure absolutely indispensable to the public security, and, under the circumstances of the case, strictly defensive.

Of the quantity of arms which appeared by their own reports to be in the hands of the disaffected, comparatively few were obtained by the search then made in Ulster by general Lake's orders; and it is also to be observed, that previously to, and during the circuit which took place in the month of April 1797, acts of violence of every description became more frequent, and were at the same time so systematically directed, with a view to stop the course of criminal

* See Annual Register, 1797. p. 508.

justice against the united Irishmen, that the crown prosecutions in the disturbed counties proved, from their failure, an encouragement rather than a restraint upon the treasonable projects of the party.

The report of the secret committee was followed by the proclamation of the 17th of May 1797, which, after reciting many acts of outrage and rebellion that had been committed, and offering pardon, with certain exceptions, to all persons guilty of the said offences who should surrender within the period of a month, and give security for their future good behaviour, declared that the civil power had proved ineffectual, and that it became necessary to employ the military force for the immediate suppression of such rebellious attempts.

It appears to your committee, that notwithstanding this measure of mercy and warning to the disaffected, in the latter end of the same month, as will be more fully explained hereafter, a general insurrection in Ulster was decided on, and the plan of attack for each county arranged.

The intention transpired, and was defeated by the active exertions of the army; notwithstanding which a partial rising did take place near the mountains in the county of Down, where the insurgents, finding themselves unsupported, soon dispersed. The effect of the measures then adopted was immediately felt; the arms of the disaffected, by necessary acts of coercion, were collected throughout the province in great numbers:—the loyal were encouraged to declare themselves—such as had been misled came in crowds to take the benefit of the proclamation of pardon, which was ex-

tended for another month; outrage ceased, and public confidence was so far restored throughout Ulster in the course of the months of July and August, that the laws were administered with effect in the different counties during the autumn circuit, and the manufacturing industry of the country was restored to its usual vigour during the remainder of that year. Your committee think it peculiarly incumbent on them to state, that during, and subsequent to, the assizes of the said circuit, the civil authority was found throughout Ulster fully adequate to the preservation of the public peace, and that all military interference was generally discontinued from that period.

It appears to your committee, that the inferior societies of united Irishmen, in general, discontinued their meetings; that the people applied themselves to their ordinary occupations; and though some of the higher committees were kept alive by the active leaders in the treason, yet it will appear, from an inspection of the authentic reports of their proceedings, that for several months only a proportion of the counties of Ulster were represented in the provincial committee; that the others refused to send delegates; that little money was collected; that they could not succeed in reviving the inferior societies; and that although they encouraged each other in the hopes of bringing the lower orders of the people again into action, in case the enemy should land, they were not able to make any impression of consequence, till the insurrection in Leinster was on the point of breaking forth; and your committee feel themselves warranted in stating, that the beneficial consequences arising from the measures adopted in

in the year 1797, in the north, were strongly exemplified in the feebleness of the late insurrection in that quarter, and in the spirit displayed on that occasion by the yeomanry and loyal inhabitants of the province of Ulster.

It appears to your committee, that the leaders of the treason, apprehensive lest the enemy might be discouraged from any farther plan of invasion, by the loyal disposition manifested throughout Munster and Connaught on their former attempt, determined to direct all their exertions to the propagation of the system in those provinces, which had hitherto been but partially infected. With this view emissaries were sent into the south and west in great numbers, on whose success, in forming new societies, and administering the oaths of the union, there were, in the course of a few months, but too evident proofs in the introduction of the same disturbances and enormities into Munster, with which the northern province had been so severely visited.

In May 1797, although numbers had been sworn both in Munster and Leinster, the strength of the organisation, exclusively of Ulster, lay chiefly in the metropolis and a few neighbouring counties; namely, Dublin, Kildare, Meath, Wickmeath, and the King's county.

It is observable, that the counties in which defenderism had prevailed easily became converts to the new doctrines; and in the summer of 1797 the usual concomitants of the treason, namely, the plundering houses of arms, the fabrication of pikes, and the murder of those who did not join their party, began to appear in the midland counties.

In order to engage the peasantry

in the southern counties, particularly in the counties of Waterford and Cork, the more eagerly in their cause, the united Irishmen found it expedient, in urging their general principles, to dwell with peculiar energy on the supposed oppressiveness of tythes, which had been the pretext for the old white-boy insurrections. And it is observable that, in addition to the acts of violence usually resorted to by the party, for the furtherance of their purposes, the ancient practice of burning the corn, and houghing the cattle, of those against whom their resentment was directed, was revived, and very generally practised in those counties.

With a view to excite the resentment of the catholics, and to turn that resentment to the purposes of the party, fabricated and false tests were represented as having been taken to exterminate catholics, and were industriously disseminated by the emissaries of the treason throughout the provinces of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught. Reports were frequently circulated amongst the ignorant of the catholic persuasion, that large bodies of men were coming to put them to death. This fabrication, however extravagant and absurd, was one among the many wicked means by which the deluded peasantry were engaged the more rapidly in the treason.

In addition to the above arts practised to excite the people, and to turn local prejudices to the furtherance of their purpose, the party did not fail to avail themselves, to the fullest extent, of the most wicked and licentious abuse of the press. In the summer of 1797, an infamous paper, called the Union Star, was privately printed and circulated, inculcating the principles of

of insurrection and assassination in direct terms, and containing a description of those persons by name (particularly magistrates, and such as had served on juries) who were to be held out to the party as objects of assassination, on account of their active loyalty, or a conscientious discharge of their duty.

Towards the end of the same year, a newspaper, called the Press, was established, latterly published in the name of Mr. A. O'Connor as proprietor thereof, who has admitted before your committee, that he was for more than a year a member of the executive directory of the Irish union, and who, as it appears to your committee from various channels of information, was a most active and confidential leader of their treason in its principal departments, both at home and abroad, which conveyed periodical exhortations to all manner of outrage and insubordination. Every species of misrepresentation and sophistry was made use of to vilify the government, to extend the union, to snake the connexion with Great Britain, to induce the people to look to French assistance, to exaggerate the force and numbers of the disaffected, and systematically to degrade the administration of justice in all its departments. This paper, conducted on principles still more licentious than the Northern Star (which had contributed so largely to the extension of treason in the north), was distributed throughout all parts of the kingdom, and, from the activity of its partisans, had immediately a more extensive circulation than any paper long established.

The measures thus adopted by the party completely succeeded in detaching the minds of the lower classes from their usual habits and

pursuits, inasmuch, that in the course of the autumn and winter of 1797 the peasantry in the midland and southern counties were sworn, and ripe for insurrection. Pikes were fabricated in such numbers, that in the single county of Kildare, in consequence of the measures adopted by government, twelve thousand have been surrendered; and your committee have every reason to believe that a still greater proportion was retained, and that the preparation of arms in other counties by the disaffected was nearly as extensive as the organisation itself, will appear as well from the numbers seized in different parts of the kingdom, amounting in the whole to above 120,000 of different descriptions, as from the fact, that wherever the insurrection broke out the mass of the people were universally armed either with muskets or pikes.

While they were thus maturing their design, and secretly acquiring the strength and consistency of a revolutionary army, they omitted no artifice by which they could hope either to weaken or embarrass the government of the country. So early as the year 1792 the seduction of the soldiery made a part of their system. They imagined that the season was now arrived for its accomplishment, and no means which wicked subtilty could suggest were left unemployed. Printed papers were industriously circulated amongst the privates and non-commissioned officers, urging them to insubordination and revolt, and holding out the most tempting offers of preferment to such as should desert their colours. The atrocious crimes to which they were incited will best appear by reference to the proceedings of the general courts-martial hereunto annexed, before

before whom the culprits were tried, prior to the breaking out of the rebellion, and to the trial of Henry and John Sheares before a special commission lately held.

Their attempts to frustrate the administration of justice have already been mentioned. It will be proper to state some farther particulars. From several authentic reports of their own proceedings it appears, that considerable sums of money were subscribed for the purpose of defending such of their associates as should be brought to trial. That they had itinerant committees, who went circuit as regularly as the judges. That a bar of lawyers were retained to undertake the cause of all persons in the gross committed for state offences. Entries of money appear in their proceedings as paid to procure, as well as to buy off, witnesses. In many cases to gaolers for being guilty of breaches of trust, and even to under-sheriffs for returning partial pannels; hand-bills to intimidate jurors were circulated; and every species of indecent management practised in the courts, to exclude from the jury-box persons unconnected with their party.

In the hope of diminishing the resources of the state, instructions were given to the people to abstain from the consumption of exciseable articles, which are productive to the revenue, and every endeavour made to depreciate the value of government securities in the estimation of the public, to stop the raising of the supplies of the year by the sale of the quit rents, and to prevent the circulation of Bank paper.

Before your committee proceed to state the traitorous correspondence carried on by the leading members of the conspiracy with the enemy, they think it necessary

to advert to a new organisation of the society which took place in August 1797, the reasons for which change will best appear by an inspection of the printed paper at that time circulated, as an instruction to the body: and your committee beg leave to refer to the examination upon oath, before the secret committee of the house of lords, of Dr. Mc'Nevin, who states himself to have been a member of their executive directory for the detailed application of this new system to military purposes.

The evidence of the same person, together with that of two other members of the executive, namely, Mr. Emmet and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, delivered upon oath before the said secret committee of the lords, and who, as well as the said Dr. Mc'Nevin, have been examined since before your committee, has completely developed the connexion of the party with the French directory. From their testimony, it appears, that so early as the year 1796, the party, despairing of carrying their plans into execution through the medium of a democratic reform, avowedly directed their efforts to revolution; and having received an intimation from one of the society, and whom your committee have very good reason to know to be Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone, already mentioned, (a fugitive from this country on account of his treasonable conduct) then at Paris, that the state of the country had been represented to the government of France in such a light as to induce them to resolve on sending a force to Ireland for the purpose of enabling it to separate itself from Great Britain; an extraordinary meeting of the executive of the union was convened to take the proposal into consideration.

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This meeting was held in the summer of 1796, and the result of their deliberations was to accept of the assistance thus held out to them by the French directory.

In consequence of this determination an agent was dispatched to the directory to acquaint them with it. He was instructed to state the dispositions of the people, and the arrangements of the union for their reception; and received fresh assurances from the French government that the armament should be sent as speedily as it could be prepared. The agent above alluded to appears to your committee, from various channels of information, to have been the late lord Edward Fitzgerald, who, accompanied by the said Mr. Arthur O'Connor, proceeded by Hamburgh to Switzerland, and had an interview near the French frontier with general Hoche, who afterwards had the command of the expedition against Ireland, on which occasion every thing was settled between the parties with a view to the descent. The reason the persons employed on this mission did not pass into France was, lest the Irish government should gain intelligence of the fact, and cause them to be apprehended on their return.

About October, 1796, an accredited messenger from the French republic arrived, who said he came to be informed of the state of the country, and to communicate to the leaders of the united Irishmen the intention of the French to invade Ireland speedily with fifteen thousand men, and a great quantity of arms and ammunition, which attempt so announced was accordingly made in the month of December following, when the French fleet, with a large body of troops on board, arrived in Bantry-bay.

Your committee do not think it necessary to advert to the early and frequent communications of a treasonable nature that took place between the disaffected who had fled from this country to France, and the leaders of the party here; it is sufficient to set forth the leading attempts of the union to prevail upon the French directory to send a force to their assistance. It is necessary however to observe, that although previous to the summer of 1796 no formal and authorised communication appears to have taken place between the Irish executive and the French government, yet the trial of Dr. Jackson, convicted of high treason in the year 1795, proves that even then the enemy had agents in this kingdom who were addressed to the most active members of the Irish union for information and assistance; and the treasonable statement respecting the interior situation of Ireland then drawn up, to be transmitted to France, appeared on the trial to have been the joint production of Theobald Wolfe Tone, heretofore mentioned as the framer of the original constitution of united Irishmen, assisted by Archibald Hamilton Rowan, esq. who frequently appeared in their publications as the chairman of the society, to which treason, Lewins, whom your committee from various channels of information are enabled to state to be now their resident agent at Paris, appears to have been privy.

From the period of the failure of this expedition, the disaffected either actually did expect, or, with a view of keeping up the spirits of their party, pretended to expect the immediate return of the enemy; and assurances to this effect were industriously circulated in all their societies. However, in the spring of

1797, the executive of the union thinking the French dilatory in their preparations, did then dispatch Mr. Lewins above mentioned as a confidential person to press for assistance. This agent left London in March, and proceeded to Hamburgh, but did not reach Paris until the end of May, or beginning of June, from which time he has continued to be the accredited minister of the Irish union to the French directory.

It appears to your committee, that in the summer of 1797 the executive of the union, apprehensive lest a premature insurrection in the north, before the promised succours from France could arrive, might disappoint their prospects, thought it necessary to send a second agent to Paris, to urge with increased earnestness that the promised assistance should be immediately sent; accordingly a most confidential member of their body, whom your committee have grounds to state to have been Dr. M'Nevin, who had hitherto acted as secretary to the executive, was dispatched on this mission—He left Dublin in the end of June, and presented himself with the necessary letters of credence to the French minister at Hamburgh—Meeting with some difficulty in obtaining a passport to proceed to Paris, he delivered to the minister of the republic a memoir to be forwarded to the directory, the substance of which appears in Dr. M'Nevin's examination, as taken on oath before the secret committee of the lords. It is unnecessary to make any observation upon this most curious statement—it is in itself a complete picture of the desperate purposes of the party; and the house will observe, that the statement of their own resources is flu-

idiously exaggerated in proportion to the anxiety felt by them, that the succours might be sent before the vigorous measures adopted by government in the north should disconcert their projects.

This agent was authorised to give France assurances of being repaid the full expences of any future armament she might send to Ireland, as well as of the last which had miscarried, the same to be raised by the confiscation of the lands of the church, of the property of all those who should oppose the measures of the party. He was also particularly charged to negotiate, if possible, a loan on the above security to the amount of half a million, or at least three hundred thousand pounds, for the immediate purposes of the union; and directions were given to him, that in case France could not be prevailed on to advance so large a sum, he should address himself to the court of Spain for that purpose.

It appears to your committee, that the executive of the union, though desirous of obtaining assistance in men, arms, and money, yet were averse to a greater force being sent than might enable them to subvert the government, and retain the power of the country in their own hands; but that the French showed a decided disinclination at all times to send any force to Ireland except such as, from its magnitude, might not only give them the hopes of conquering the kingdom, but of retaining it afterwards as a French conquest, and of subjecting it to all the plunder and oppressions which other countries, subdued or deceived by that nation, have experienced. A remarkable illustration of which sentiment in the directory of France occurs in the substance of a letter

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said to be received from Lewins, the Irish agent at Paris, and shown by lord Edward Fitzgerald to John Cornick, a colonel in the rebel army, who fled from justice on the breaking out of the rebellion, and who made a voluntary confession, upon his apprehension in Guernsey, before sir Hugh Dalrymple. This letter, although written apparently on money business, which is the cloak generally made use of by the party to conceal their real views, is perfectly intelligible when connected with, and explained by, the memoir presented by Dr. McNevin, the Irish agent, to the French directory. The letter states, that the trustees, that is, the directory, would not advance the five thousand pounds, that is, the smaller number of troops asked for in McNevin's memoir; saying, they would make no payment short of the entire sum, that is, the larger force, which they always declared their intention of sending; and that this payment could not be made in less than four months from that time.

The demands of the party by their first agent went to a force not exceeding ten thousand, nor less than five thousand men, with forty thousand stand of arms, and a proportionate supply of artillery, ammunition, engineers, experienced officers, &c.

A still larger supply of arms was solicited by the second messenger, on account, as he stated it, of the growing number of their adherents, and of the disarming of the north, in which province above ten thousand stand of arms, and as many pikes, had been surrendered to the king's troops.

It appears that an attempt was made about the same time to procure the assistance of such Irish officers, then in foreign service, as

might be prevailed upon, by receiving high rank, to engage in the service of the union; and that a negotiation was actually set on foot for this purpose: but it has been stated, that from the over-caution of the agent who was employed in conducting this transaction, nothing in consequence of it was effected.

A second memoir was presented by this confidential agent upon his arrival at Paris, in which he urged such arguments as he conceived most likely to induce the directory not to postpone the invasion. He endeavoured to demonstrate, that so favourable a disposition, as then existed in the Irish mind, was in no future contingency to be expected; and he artfully represented, that the delusions held out by reform might cease from delay, and thus render more difficult to France, and the true republicans of this country, their endeavours to separate the two kingdoms, and to establish a republic in Ireland.

Previous to this mission from Ireland, a confidential person was sent over by the French directory to collect information respecting the state of Ireland. Failing to obtain the necessary passports in London to pass into Ireland, he wrote over to request that one of the party might meet him in London. A person was accordingly sent over, whom your committee know, from various channels of information, to have been the late lord Edward Fitzgerald; and who, it is to be presumed, did not fail to furnish the French agent with every necessary intelligence.

The directory gave the Irish agents sent to Paris the strongest assurances of support, and did accordingly, during the summer, make preparations of a very extensive

five nature, both at the Texel and at Brest, for the invasion of Ireland; and in the autumn intelligence was received by the executive of the union, that the troops were actually embarked in the Texel, and only waited for a wind.

In consequence of this communication, great exertions were made by the party; and in the beginning of Oct. when the Dutch fleet was on the point of sailing, the approach of the enemy (as will appear by reference to the provincial reports from Ulster of that date) was announced to the societies as at hand.

The troops had been actually on board, commanded by general Daendalls, but were suddenly disembarked. The Dutch fleet, contrary to the opinion of their own admiral, as is believed generally, was, at the instance of the French government, obliged to put to sea, which led to the ever memorable victory of the 11th October, 1797.

It appears to your committee, that early in the present year farther advices were received by the Irish executive from France; stating, that succours might be expected to be sent to Ireland in April; but, notwithstanding the temptation held out by the rebellion, which commenced on the 23d of May following, the French government have not yet thought it prudent to fulfil their promise.

The committee trust they have laid sufficient grounds before the house, to satisfy them of the long-entertained and fixed purpose of the united Irishmen to introduce the enemy into this kingdom, and, through their assistance, to seize upon the government and property of the country; and that, in their negotiation with the French directory, they have had no other reserve but what their own treasonable ambition pointed out. The particulars

of the statement resting for the most part upon the admission of the parties themselves, there can be no possible room to doubt the truth of what has been submitted.

Your committee think it material to observe, that notwithstanding the wildness of the hope that they could ever succeed in overturning the government without powerful aid from abroad, yet, on more than one occasion, the eagerness of the more violent partisans so far prevailed over their reason as to induce them to meditate an insurrection. To this they were excited by the apprehension that the zeal of their followers would subside if they were not called into action, as well as by a dread that a resort to stronger measures on the part of government might at length deprive them of the means of exertion. It had been their invariable policy to announce an effort as at hand, merely to keep up the spirits of the people, when no attempt of the kind was really in contemplation; however, in the spring of 1797, a plan was seriously discussed amongst the leaders, then assembled in Dublin, for commencing a general rising, without waiting for foreign assistance; but as this scheme did not meet with the approbation of the Dublin part of the committee, it was laid aside; and it appears, that at this period a coolness took place between the Ulster and the Leinster delegates, in consequence of which the progress of the conspiracy seems to have been for a time much impeded.

The northerners then in Dublin, disgusted with the cowardice (as they termed it) of the Leinster delegates, proposed to act without their approbation, to seize upon the castle, ordnance stores, magazines, &c. and to trust to the mob

of Dublin for assistance; but from some additional military precautions, at that time adopted in the garrison, this plan was abandoned.

Shortly after the proclamation of the 17th of May, 1797, above stated, notwithstanding the strong opinion entertained by the Leinster executive of the impolicy of such an attempt, the more so, as assurances had been recently received of the preparations going forward both at Brest and in the Texel for the invasion of Ireland; yet an active effort was made to produce a general insurrection throughout Ulster, the orders for which were given out the latter end of May, in conformity to a plan previously prepared. A slight movement did take place as before stated; however the main design of the party was frustrated by the active military measures then taken by lieutenant-general Lake; and many of their principal leaders were obliged to fly, several of whom passed into France, having received letters to Reinhart, French minister at Hamburgh, from persons then resident in this country; in consequence of which introduction, the necessary passports were granted, to enable them to proceed to Paris, where they arrived early in August, and had frequent communications with the French directory on Irish affairs.

Your committee do not find that the disaffected entertained at any other periods than those alluded to, until the middle of March 1798, any serious intention of hazarding an effort independent of foreign assistance. Indeed the opinion of the most cautious of their body was always adverse to a premature exertion. Their policy was to risk nothing so long as the party was gaining strength. Their principle to extend their organisation,

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to add to their stock of arms; and to wait for events: and it appears from a variety of evidence laid before your committee, that the rebellion would not have broken out so soon as it did, had it not been for the well-timed measures adopted by government, subsequent to the proclamation of the lord-lieutenant and council, bearing date the 30th of March, 1798, as it is notorious that in many counties the effect of those measures was such in dissolving the union, and in obliging the people to surrender their arms, that it became evident to the generality of their leaders, they had no other alternative but to rise at once, or to abandon their purpose.

It appears to your committee, that with the double view of being prepared either to co-operate with the enemy in case of a descent, or of directing an insurrection upon system should they find it necessary to have recourse to such a measure before assistance might arrive from France, a military committee was appointed by the executive in the month of February last. About this time detailed military instructions were issued to the adjutant-generals of the union, by which they were required to inform themselves and report on the state of the rebel regiments within their districts, of the number of mills, the roads, rivers, bridges and fords, the military positions, the capacity of the towns and villages to receive troops, to communicate to the executive every movement of the enemy (meaning the king's troops), to announce the first appearance of their allies (meaning the French), and immediately to collect their force, with several other military regulations.

Instructions were also given to the several rebel regiments as to the

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arms and appointments with which they were to be furnished, so as to be enabled to take the field on the shortest notice.

At a meeting held the 26th of February, thanks are voted to the several colonels for their effectual exertions in embodying and arming their respective regiments—the people are requested to bear the shackles of tyranny a little longer till the whole kingdom shall be in such a state of organisation as will, by their joint co-operation, effect without loss that desirable object which they stated as hourly drawing to a crisis.

Whilst these extensive military arrangements were making by the executive to act against the state as soon as a favourable opportunity should present itself, the same system of outrage which had been so successfully made use of by the party the year before in Ulster, to establish their own authority in opposition to that of the laws, and to compel the people to look to the union for protection rather than to the state, was very generally prevalent throughout the southern and midland counties. The enormities committed on the well-affected were marked with the most disgusting cruelty.

It is unnecessary for your committee to detail individual instances of outrage which are fresh in the recollection of the house: it will be sufficient to state, that in the months of February and March many parts of the provinces of Leinster and Munster were actually in the possession of a murderous banditti. If they did not appear in arms by day, it only rendered their rebellion more difficult to be met and crushed by the king's troops and yeomanry—not a night passed without numerous murders;

several districts in the provinces of Leinster and Munster had been proclaimed under the powers given to the lord-lieutenant and council by the act for preventing insurrections; but these measures proved ineffectual—very many of the loyal inhabitants of the counties of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary, Kilkenny, Carlow, King's County, Queen's County, Kildare, and Wicklow, were, in the course of one month, stripped of their arms, and in many places obliged to fly for shelter into the garrison towns; and as one instance among many of the daring lengths to which the conspirators at this time had proceeded, your committee think it necessary to state, that, in open day, eight hundred insurgents, principally mounted, invested the town of Cahir, in the county of Tipperary; held possession of it until they had made a regular search through every house, and carried off in triumph all the arms and ammunition they could find.

Under these circumstances the lord-lieutenant and council issued the proclamation before spoken of, bearing date the 30th of March, stating that the traitorous conspiracy long existing within this kingdom had broken out into acts of open rebellion; and giving notice that the most direct and positive orders were issued to the officers commanding his majesty's forces to employ them with the utmost vigour and decision for the immediate suppression thereof; and also for the recovery of such arms as had been traitorously taken from the king's peaceable and loyal subjects. It was also enjoined, that they should disarm the rebels and all persons disaffected to his majesty's government by the most summary and effectual measures.

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This proclamation was transmitted by his excellency's commands to Sir Ralph Abercrombie, then commander in chief, who was directed to proceed into the disturbed counties, being invested by the lord-lieutenant with full powers.

Your committee annex to this report a notice to the inhabitants of the disturbed counties, as issued by the said commander in chief; and think it incumbent on them to observe, that on this, and, indeed, on every occasion in which the government, or the officers acting under its orders, have been driven to the necessity of adopting extraordinary measures for the safety of the state, full notice and time have uniformly been given before they were acted upon, and the people have been exhorted to prevent the necessity of rigorous measures by a cessation from outrage and a surrender of their arms.

It appears to your committee, that the steps then taken, as mentioned in the proclamation, had an almost immediate effect in repressing the audacity of the rebels, and in restoring tranquillity. The loyal inhabitants were enabled in many places to return in safety to their houses—murders became less frequent; in many counties, particularly in Kildare and Tipperary, the people, sensible of the madness and wickedness of their conduct, began openly to acknowledge their crimes, surrender their arms, and point out their leaders and seducers; a submission which invariably obtained for them pardon and protection.

In April, and the beginning of May, the delusion of the people was so fast and so widely yielding to the measures of government, which, while they treated with severity the obstinately guilty, in all cases held forth mercy to the re-

pentant, that the leaders of the treason, both in Dublin and the provinces, began to perceive that their cause was losing ground, and that they had no alternative left but to hazard an insurrection, or to relinquish their hopes. The arrest of the Leinster provincial committee, on the 12th of March, and of several other leading members of the union on the same day, tended so much to disclose the guilt of the party and to weaken their organisation, that the conspirators felt themselves still more compelled to a desperate effort. A plan was accordingly digested by the military committee for a general rising, the outline of which was to surprise Dublin, the camp at Loughlinstown, and the artillery stationed at Chapolizod on the same night, in which attack the counties of Dublin, Wicklow, and Kildare, were to co-operate: the insurrection being commenced in the neighbourhood of the metropolis (the signal for announcing which was to be the detention of the mail-coaches), it was expected that the north and south would also rise.

The house will find the plan of insurrection detailed and fully proved in the evidence adduced on the trial of Henry and John Sheares, lately convicted of high-treason; the bloody intentions of the party may best be collected from a manifesto in the hand-writing of the said John Sheares (one of the new executive elected after the arrests made on the 12th of March last, as your committee have reason to believe), which was to have been issued in the event of success. Were any additional proofs necessary to establish the authenticity of the plan as above stated, it may be found in the proceedings of the provincial committee of Ulster, which met at Armagh on the 12th

of May, where the same plan was announced as decided on, and the necessary orders given for securing, as far as possible, the co-operation of the north.

The government, perfectly informed of the intentions of the conspirators, caused several of the leaders to be apprehended on the 19th and 21st of May, and the approaching insurrection was announced to the lord-mayor late in the evening of the 21st in a letter from the lord-lieutenant's secretary; and on the following day a message to the same effect was sent by his excellency to both houses of parliament. Notwithstanding the military precautions adopted to counteract the intended rising, it took place in the neighbourhood of Dublin on the night appointed, namely, the 23d of May; and every possible effort was made by the disaffected within the town to co-operate with those without. In conformity to the plan laid down, the mail-coaches were destroyed on the northern and southern roads, and every exertion made by the party in the provinces to bring the people into action.

Your committee do not think it necessary to record the events of the bloody and destructive rebellion that ensued, which are still but too fresh in the memory of the house; they need only state, that as soon as the rebels had actually taken the field in force, and commenced their operations by several daring attacks upon the towns garrisoned by the king's troops, the lord-lieutenant and council published a proclamation, bearing date the 24th of May, announcing, that he had authorised the summary punishment by martial law of all rebels found in arms, or of persons in anywise aiding or

assisting in the rebellion; to which seasonable interposition of the powers of the state, the preservation of the constitution against this daring attempt to subvert it is not less to be attributed, than to the distinguished fidelity and bravery of the king's troops, both regulars, militia, and yeomanry.

On consideration of the whole of the evidence, your committee are of opinion.

That the rebellion originated in a system, framed not with a view of obtaining either catholic emancipation, or any reform compatible with the existence of the constitution, but for the purpose of subverting the government, separating Ireland from Great Britain, and forming a democratic republic, founded on the destruction of all church establishment, the abolition of ranks, and the confiscation of property.

That the means resorted to for the attainment of these designs was a secret systematised combination, fitted to attract the multitude by being adapted to vulgar prejudices and vicious passions, and artfully linked and connected together with a view of forming the mass of the lower ranks into a revolutionary force, acting in concert, and moving in one body, at the impulse and under the direction of their leaders.

That for the farther accomplishment of their object, the leaders of the conspiracy entered into a negotiation, and finally concluded an alliance with the French directory, by which it was stipulated, that an adequate force should be sent for the invasion of this country, as subsidiary to the preparations that were making for a general insurrection.

That in pursuance of this design, measures were adopted by the chiefs

chiefs of the conspiracy, for giving to their societies a military form; and that for arming their adherents, they had recourse partly to the fabrication of pikes, and partly to the plundering of the loyal inhabitants of their arms.

That from the vigorous and summary expedients resorted to by government, and the consequent exertions of the military, the leaders found themselves reduced to the alternative of immediate insurrection, or of being deprived of the means on which they relied for effecting their purpose; and that to this cause is exclusively to be attributed that premature and desperate effort, the rashness of which has so evidently facilitated its suppression.

That the vigilance of the executive government, in detecting and arresting many of the principal conspirators in the very act of concerting their plans of insurrection, the convictions which have ensued, and the still more complete development of the treason by the confession of some of its most active and efficient conductors, have not only essentially contributed to the defeat of the rebellion, but, by enabling the committee to disclose the views and machinations of the conspirators, may suggest means for securing the future tranquillity of the country.

Your committee cannot conclude without observing, that, on a review of the treason which has employed their attention, they trace a perfect coincidence, in its commencement and in its progress, its means and its objects, with that by which the government, the religion, and the happiness of France, have been destroyed; which has extended its desolating influence

over some of the most prosperous and flourishing countries of Europe, and has shaken to its foundation the fabric of regular society throughout the civilised world. That the leaders of the system, in order to adapt the minds of the multitude to the purposes of their treason, have, after the example of their jacobine allies in France, left no means unemployed which the most malignant subtilty could suggest, for eradicating from amongst the working classes every sentiment both of private and public duty—all quiet and peaceable habits, all social as well as moral obligations, it has been their object to destroy; and the more sacred the tie, the more industriously have they laboured to dissolve it: they have incited the foldier to betray his king, they have armed the tenant against the landlord, and they have taught the servant to conspire with the assassin of his master; blasting the repose and confidence of private life even in its sanctuary, and effacing every law of truth, of justice, of gratitude, and of religion, except where it has been possible to make even religion itself the perverted instrument of their execrable views. Such have been the leading principles, and the long-laboured preparatives for that rebellion from which your committee trust this country has been happily rescued; and they indulge a sanguine hope, that their present statement, authenticated as it is by such a mass of evidence, will contribute still farther to the complete re-establishment of tranquillity, by throwing the fullest light on the dangers to which the community has been exposed, and against which it is still necessary to guard.

His Majesty's Speech in the House of Lords, Tuesday, November 20, 1798, on opening the 3d Session of the 18th Parliament of Great Britain.

My lords and gentlemen,

The events which have taken place in the course of the present year, and the signal success which, by the blessing of Providence, has attended my arms, have been productive of the happiest consequences, and have essentially promoted the prosperity and glory of our country.

The unexampled series of our naval triumphs has received fresh splendor from the memorable and decisive action in which a detachment of my fleet, under the command of rear-admiral lord Nelson, attacked and almost totally destroyed a superior force of the enemy, strengthened by every advantage of situation: by this great and brilliant victory, an enterprise, of which the injustice, perversity, and extravagance, had fixed the attention of the world, and which was peculiarly directed against some of the most valuable interests of the British empire, has, in the first instance, been turned to the confusion of its authors; and the blow thus given to the power and influence of France has afforded an opening which, if improved by suitable exertions on the part of other powers, may lead to the general deliverance of Europe.

The wisdom and magnanimity so eminently displayed at this conjuncture by the emperor of Russia, and the decision and vigour of the Ottoman Porte, have shown that these powers are impressed with a just sense of the present crisis; and their example, joined to the disposition manifested almost universally in the different countries struggling under the yoke of France,

must be a powerful encouragement to other states to adopt that vigorous, line of conduct which experience has proved to be alone consistent with security or honour.

The extent of our preparations at home, and the demonstrations of zeal and spirit among all ranks of my subjects, have deterred the enemy from attempting to execute their vain threat of invading the coasts of this kingdom.

In Ireland, the rebellion which they had instigated has been curbed and repressed; the troops which they landed for its support have been compelled to surrender; and the armaments since destined for the same purpose have, by the vigilance and activity of my squadrons, been captured or dispersed. The views and principles of those who, in concert with our inveterate enemy, have long planned the subversion of our constitution, have been fully detected and exposed, and their treasons made manifest to the world. Those whom they had misled or seduced must now be awakened to their duty; and a just sense of the miseries and horrors which these traitorous designs have produced, must impress on the minds of all my faithful subjects the necessity of continuing to repel with firmness every attack on the laws and established government of their country.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

Under the unavoidable pressure of protracted war, it is a great satisfaction to me to observe, that the produce of the public revenue has proved fully adequate to the increase of our permanent expenditure; that the national credit has been maintained and improved; and that the commerce and industry of my subjects have continued to flourish in a degree hitherto unknown.

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The situation in which we are placed unhappily renders the continuance of heavy expenses indispensable for the public safety. But the state of our resources, and the good sense and public spirit which prevail through every part of my kingdom, will, I trust, enable you to provide the necessary supplies without essential inconvenience to my people, and with as little addition as possible to the permanent burdens of the state. The progress made towards such a system by the measures adopted in the last session, and the aid given to public credit by the plan for the redemption of the land-tax, have been attended with the most beneficial effect, which you will, I am persuaded, omit no opportunity to confirm and improve.

My lords and gentlemen,

I rely with confidence on the continuance of your exertions, to enable me ultimately to conduct the great contest in which we are engaged to a safe and honourable conclusion.

We have surmounted many and great difficulties. Our perseverance in a just cause has been rewarded with distinguished success; and our present situation, compared with that of other countries, sufficiently proves how much, in a period of general danger and calamity, the security and happiness of the British nation have depended (under the blessing of Providence) on its own constancy, its energy, and its virtue.

The following Circular Letter has been addressed to the Lord Lieutenants of all the Maritime Counties of the Kingdom.

Parliament-Street, 1798.

MY LORD,

In conformity to the dispositions of the act just passed, intituled,

“An Act to enable his Majesty more effectually to provide for the Defence and Security of the Realm; and for indemnifying Persons who may suffer in their Property by such Measures as may be necessary for that Purpose;” I feel myself called upon, in obedience to his majesty’s commands, to address your lordship upon several points connected with the defence of the country; and to which, from a conviction of their importance, I most anxiously request your lordship’s particular attention.

Having lately had frequent occasion to require your lordship’s assistance in the execution of plans and arrangements adopted and acted upon by his majesty’s government, as conducive to the same object, it would have been a satisfaction to me if I could have avoided giving you further trouble for the present; but further exertions being deemed necessary, I am convinced I should not do justice to your lordship’s sentiments, and to the zeal of every description of persons acting under you, if I hesitated a moment to explain the full extent of those exertions, and the suggestions which have occurred for carrying them into effect.

Whatever confidence I place in the actual security of these kingdoms, in consequence of the decided superiority of our navy, and of the amount of the land forces already embodied, or now collecting, for the protection of the country against the menaced invasion of the enemy, I should not feel that I discharged my duty, if our system of defence did not embrace such further means of security as appear to be evidently within our reach.

In the practical application of this principle, I am convinced that your lordship, and generally every person, must concur in opinion

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with me, that it is of much importance to extend, as widely as possible, that feeling of confidence which will naturally result from men of every description being placed in a situation to take, in their respective stations, an active part in the defence of their country, especially if this can be accomplished without any material interruption to the various habitual occupations in which they are severally engaged.

In many great and populous towns of the kingdom this principle has already been acted upon, in so far as a variety of volunteer corps and armed associations have been formed, generally for the purpose of local defence and security.—I shall, therefore, confine myself to suggest the propriety of encouraging the formation of any further corps, on similar principles, within any such towns, in the county of

It must, however, be considered as an essential condition in the establishment of any further corps of this description, that they should consist of none but known and respectable householders, or persons who can bring at least two such householders to answer for their good behaviour. Corps of this description, if formed in sea-ports, would, in case of any hostile attempt being made, be necessary to strengthen the garrisons of such places, and in all populous towns engaged in pursuits of manufacture or trade, whether situated on the coast or inland, their presence within such towns, in case of emergency, when the regular forces might be wanted elsewhere, might be very useful to relieve them in the preservation of internal tranquility, and the maintenance of a proper police. With a wish to give every possible encouragement to persons willing to come forward for these essential objects, and from a consideration of

the great inconvenience and loss to which such persons (engaged as they are in extensive concerns of business) might be exposed, if they were liable to be called away from the necessary superintendence of their respective avocations, his majesty has been pleased to authorise me to inform your lordship, that any armed association, either of cavalry or infantry, formed of the description of persons above mentioned, and within such towns as I now advert to, will, if recommended by your lordship, be accepted by his majesty, although the offer of their services should be limited respectively to the town in which they are to be raised, and within a few miles thereof; that the officers of the said corps will receive commissions from the king, upon your lordship's recommendation, and, if required, arms will be supplied by government; but every other expense of armed associations of this description must be defrayed by themselves.

It is, however, no less essential to the general security of the kingdom, to interest and engage in its defence the husbandmen and labourers, inhabitants of the country, who being more dispersed, and, from their condition of life, less able to associate together upon the plans pursued in the towns, appear to require that the exertions they are certainly willing to make should be duly directed, by the interposition of your lordship's advice and authority, in concert with the gentlemen of property and influence in the county, and aided by the respectable farmers with whom they are immediately connected. If the very valuable classes of men to which I now refer are not apprised of the duties for which they would be wanted, and if some previous arrangements are not made, and regulations established, with respect

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to the distribution, application, and discharge of those duties, in case of actual invasion, the approach of an enemy would necessarily produce among them a general confusion and alarm, highly prejudicial to their own interests, and to the general safety of the country; whereas, if the modes in which their assistance may be made useful, can be explained to them at present, so that each man may be instructed, and, if necessary, trained before-hand in the exercise of the particular service to be assigned to him in case of emergency, the result will be confidence and union among themselves, and that government will not only acquire a great accession of strength, but, what is perhaps more important, the means of appropriating with regularity, and directing with vigour, that strength against an invading enemy.

The measures which I have reason to believe have already been taken in the county of for ascertaining, to a certain extent, the number of persons between the ages of fifteen and sixty, not engaged in any military capacity, will, I believe, afford some facility in carrying so far into execution the provisions of the act now transmitted, which, it is his majesty's express command, should be punctually attended to (as far as they are applicable) in the county of

I am aware of the difficulties which may occur in procuring these necessary details, but I am confident they may be overcome by your lordship's zeal and perseverance, aided (as I trust you will be) by the cordial co-operation of every well-disposed person, who, in his public capacity, or by his private influence, can afford you any assistance in this respect.

I enclose herewith a form of schedule, No. I. in conformity to which this return should be taken in each parish and division of the county, and agreeably to which a general return of the totals for the whole county is to be transmitted to me for his majesty's information.

No. II. is another schedule *, requiring information on other heads referred to in the act above mentioned, and which is to be procured and transmitted in the same manner. One point, which it would be very material not to neglect, is to ascertain the number of boats, barges, and small craft on the canals and rivers of the country.—The use to be derived, in certain cases, from this species of assistance to the movements of our own forces, and the advantages it might afford to the enemy, if suffered to fall into their hands, are so obvious that I need not press further the importance of obtaining respecting it every information in your power. I have, however, abstained from including it in the schedule, as it appears to me impossible, in most cases, to consider this description of property as exclusively confined to any particular county; but, at the same time, I have so far thought it right to call your lordship's attention to the subject, in order that, as far as possible, it may be brought under the general arrangements of precautions necessary at the present moment.

The schedule No. III. is prepared with a view to ascertain the various points under the respective heads therein stated, and to which it is of the utmost importance that returns should be made with all possible expedition, and the totals transmitted to government in the same manner.

* These schedules were not published.

In ascertaining the number of persons, inhabitants of any of the principal towns of the county of who may be willing to serve in a military capacity, your lordship will take care to state whether they come under the description, and are willing to comply with the conditions specified in a former part of this letter.

From what I have already stated, and by a reference to the schedule, No. III. your lordship will perceive, that in the country the associations, if armed, will not be formed upon the same principles as in the towns, and that it is intended to encourage other associations equally necessary, in case of invasion, and which can be formed by inhabitants of the country only. Each of these points require some separate explanation. First, it is intended that no volunteer should be admitted into the armed associations to be formed in the country, whose habitual occupation and place of residence is not within the division of the county to which the association may extend; that those who may prefer service on horseback shall (if the troops of yeomanry already raised within the county should not be complete, or should their present establishment admit, without inconvenience, of an augmentation) be received into the nearest troop of the same, in all cases where this arrangement may suit local purposes, and be found acceptable to the said troop, and to the parties; and in other cases they will be formed into separate and independent troops of not less than forty nor more than eighty men each, to be commanded by such officers as may be recommended by your lordship, in a similar proportion to the yeomanry cavalry, and they will be entitled to the same allowances and assistance from government, to procure

clothing and appointments; namely, at the rate of three pounds for each person serving in the said corps, per ann. for three years, subject to the same regulations, and to be issued in the same manner, as to the yeomanry already established, as specified in the letter from the secretary at war to your lordship of this day's date.

All new troops, formed upon this principle, to engage to be trained at least once a week, and for not less than three hours at a time; and in case of actual invasion, or the actual appearance of an enemy upon the coast, to serve within the limits of the military district to which they belong. With respect to armed associations of infantry, it is proposed that they should be formed into independent companies, of not less than 60 nor more than 120 men in each company, to be armed in the same manner as the volunteer corps in the towns; or should it be found impossible, from their number, to furnish them all with muskets in the first instance, that a certain proportion should be provided with pikes; that they should be supplied with an uniform clothing, or a fair allowance to provide themselves with the same at the public expense; that each company should be commanded by a captain, to be recommended by your lordship, having a lieutenant, an ensign, and a proper number of non-commissioned officers in proportion to the strength of the company under him; but your lordship is not to recommend any person to such command who has not a residence, and an income in land to the amount of 50l. within the county of , or who does not rent land within the same, to the amount of 100l. per annum, and, if possible, within the division thereof in which the said company may be

be raised, except the sons of persons so qualified, or persons having previously held some military commission which, in your lordship's judgment, might render them eligible for such a situation, although they might not hold land, either in possession or occupancy, to the amount above mentioned. Should your lordship be acquainted with any person accustomed to military service (whether on the half-pay list of the army or not) who may be disposed to accept either of the subaltern commissions, such a person will be preferred for the same, if approved of and recommended by your lordship; and in case no proper person of this description should be known to your lordship, government will endeavour, as far as possible, to provide one, together with one non-commissioned officer for each company, to train the men and teach them the use of arms. This non-commissioned officer would receive constant pay from government; the subaltern officer, if selected from the half-pay list, would be allowed the full pay of his rank; and in case he has heretofore been engaged in any military line which does not entitle him to half-pay, he will, if approved of, be entitled to an allowance equivalent to the half-pay of whatever commission he may hold in the company, so long as he shall continue to hold such commission.

Each company of infantry to engage to be trained at least once a week, and for not less than three hours at a time; and, in case of invasion, to serve within the limits of the military district to which such company may belong.

Considering the great importance of encouraging associations of this description among the inhabitants of the country, the inconvenience

to which they may be exposed from their scattered situation in assembling to be mustered and trained, and the difference between their situation in life and the circumstances of the persons composing volunteer corps in towns, his majesty is graciously pleased to authorise me to inform your lordship that every man of the former will be entitled (should he think proper to claim it) to an allowance of one shilling per week, to be paid by government to such as may appear upon the return, signed by the commanding officer, to have attended at the muster and training above mentioned. Should the companies formed in any particular division of the county be numerous, and different days for exercise be fixed upon by the said companies respectively, a smaller number of arms in the first instance, and of non-commissioned officers to train them, may be sufficient. I mention this circumstance with a view to their mutual accommodation in these points, in case the full number of either cannot be supplied immediately; but certainly, with respect to arms, no exertion will be spared to provide such a depôt, at a safe place within the county, as may be sufficient, in case of emergency, to supply all demands.

Having now explained, as far as appears necessary for the present, the means by which it appears desirable that the voluntary exertions of individuals disposed to act in a military capacity within the county of should be encouraged and regulated, I shall proceed to call your lordship's attention to other suggestions and arrangements coming under the remaining heads of the schedule, and equally essential for the defence and security of the country in case of invasion.

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With a view to such an emergency, no previous arrangement that can improve our chance of speedy and decisive success, or tend to embarrass the operations and defeat the views of the enemy, should be neglected. For this purpose it is necessary not only to be prepared with an armed force, adequate to meet and repel their aggression in the field, but to be ready, on the first alarm of invasion, effectually to deprive them of every means of supply they might expect, and to impede and harass them in every movement they might attempt in this country; and both these objects must be combined with the means of furnishing our own forces with every requisite, and of facilitating their movements and operations by every assistance the country can afford. To provide for these joint objects, branching out into a variety of details unnecessary to be mentioned at present, it is essential to ascertain what number of men in the county of are willing to act as pioneers and labourers in case of invasion, or of very imminent danger thereof, upon the requisition of the commander in chief in the district, and with what implements they are provided for this species of service. The information required under this head will be comprehended in the columns seven to seventeen of the schedule No. III. The principal duties of these pioneers and labourers would be to destroy and break up such roads, bridges, or other means of communication as are likely to be useful to the enemy; to cut down and clear away any obstacles (woods, fences, or otherwise) to the movements of our own troops; and in general to perform whatever services of labour are judged requisite by the commander in chief, or

any competent person acting under his authority.—Under the seven-teenth and eighteenth columns will be ranged all persons who may engage to assist in removing the live and dead stock, with a view to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy, and of ensuring a regular supply to our own forces.

The powers vested in the proper officers attached to the army, and to which I shall hereafter have occasion to refer, will, I trust, be found fully adequate to this last purpose; and the precautions, it is his majesty's pleasure should forthwith be taken, are principally material with a view to the former, and if properly executed, (should the necessity arise) will be found equally essential to the security of the country, and to the interests of the individuals to whom they apply.

Without entering into further details in this dispatch, I am convinced your lordship must be impressed with the importance of procuring the information required under these heads; your lordship may, however, acquire some knowledge of the use that may be derived from it, and of the practical application of the regulations which it is desirable to establish on all these last-mentioned points, and also with respect to bakers and guides, by perusing the enclosed papers, which have been prepared for the information and guidance of the maritime counties, in the execution of such parts of the late act as have reference to the several subjects to which they relate.

The subsequent columns of the schedule are so immediately connected with this last subject, that they can require no particular explanation. I shall simply observe, that it will be more satisfactory that every parish should make a return

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of what, according to the judgment of the most competent persons therein, may be reckoned the fair average, or usual proportion of live or dead stock of the said parish, than a minute specification of what there may happen to be at the moment such return is called for.

Your lordship's local knowledge and experience of the established modes of proceeding in the details of whatever arrangements are to be executed under the authority of the lord lieutenant in the county of

must render it superfluous for me to offer any suggestions on the steps to be taken for carrying into effect the king's commands, as stated in this letter. The manner in which the county is now formed into divisions and subdivisions, of different descriptions and extent, and the person or persons in each whose duty it now is to attend to other points of public interest, will, I trust, be found sufficient for every purpose of these instructions; at the same time I am aware that some allowances must be made, in the application of a plan so general and extensive, for unforeseen contingencies; and in these cases his majesty, trusting to your lordship and your deputy-lieutenants not to lose sight of the principles of the measure, is graciously pleased to leave to your joint discretion to act according to circumstances; and I beg leave to assure your lordship, that I shall be glad to hear from your lordship either officially or privately, respecting any modifications that may suggest themselves to you, or the gentlemen with whom you may consult; and that I shall not fail to give them the most attentive and candid consideration; and should they appear expedient, and of a nature to re-

quire the further interposition of parliament during the present session, a power, as your lordship will perceive, is reserved under the late act for this purpose.

It would now remain for me, before I conclude this letter, to call your lordship's attention to the application of the several preparatory arrangements already adverted to, in case of the actual appearance of an enemy, or of their having landed upon the coast; and, with a view to that application, a variety of points remain to be determined, such as settling the places of dépôt to which the live and dead stock are to be removed, the manner in which they are to be taken care of at such dépôts, the routes which they are to take, and those which they are to avoid, in order not to interfere with the movements of the military; the allotment of yeomanry, or other escorts for their protection, or for enforcing the regulations established respecting them; the necessary arrangements for removing infirm persons, women, and children; and, next to them, such articles of property as are most valuable; the precautions to be taken for destroying the remainder, and for obtaining, by previous estimates, agreeable to the provisions of the act, some grounds by which the amount of compensation to be made to owners of property so destroyed may be ascertained; the separate places of rendezvous to which every description of persons, whether connected with the armed force or otherwise, should repair on the signals of alarm being made, the arrangement of those signals, and of every other particular which may tend to insure promptitude and regularity in the execution of
whatever

whatever movements and operations it might then be necessary to undertake.

The mode of supplying our own army, in such an emergency, embraces also a variety of details and arrangements which cannot be too soon determined upon, and put in train of execution. The only effectual means of bringing all these last points under discussion is, that your lordship should call, as soon as possible, a general meeting of the deputy lieutenants and magistrates of the county of _____, at which general _____, commanding his majesty's forces in the _____ district, or some competent officer, fully authorised, will be directed to attend, and to submit and explain to the meeting the plans and local arrangements prepared and determined upon by him, in concert with his royal highness the commander in chief, and his majesty's ministers, upon each of the heads, in which the assistance of the civil power, acting in concert with him, will be necessary for carrying them into execution. In like manner, the commissary general of the forces, or a proper commissary of stores and provisions acting under his direction, and duly authorised, will be directed to attend, and to lay before the meeting the plans approved by his majesty's treasury for the supply of the army; and to point out and explain the mode in which the concurrence and assistance of the said meeting will be requisite for carrying them into execution. Your lordship will allow me to suggest the expediency of your consulting with the general to fix the day of calling such meeting, in order to assure the attendance above mentioned, without too much interfering with other es-

sential duties that may require to be executed in the district.

Should the enemy, in the prosecution of their avowed designs against this country, succeed in escaping the vigilance of our superior navy, and the final issue of this great contest remain ultimately to be decided by the valour and spirit of our land forces, that issue will very much depend on the precautions which I have now stated being executed with punctuality, and in the strictest concert with the officers commanding his majesty's forces in the several military districts to which those counties belong. It is to this issue, as a possible event, with all the responsibility and all the consequences it involves, that his majesty's confidential servants were bound to look, when they submitted to his majesty the plans I have now stated. The same prospects, the same considerations, they trust, will rouse the energy and animate the exertion of every man, to whom any share of their execution is now committed under his majesty's express commands.

The great and fundamental advantage of the previous arrangements it is his majesty's pleasure should be forthwith executed, is that, if properly attended to, they will assign to every man the duty he should fulfil, and the post to which he should repair in the hour of emergency, guarding him and the country on the one hand against confusion and panic, and on the other against the disasters incident to temerity and ill-concerted operations. In preparing for that emergency, I cannot too strongly recommend to every description of persons to lay aside all untimely and misplaced jealousy respecting the military power with which every

every arrangement must be concerted. Your lordship in particular, and all persons acting immediately under you, cannot be too strongly impressed with the necessity of an unreserved and habitual communication with those to whom the direction of that power is entrusted in the district; and I can assure your lordship, that, on their part, they have his majesty's most positive orders to be equally unreserved and frequent in their communications with your lordship and your deputy lieutenants, and in all doubtful occurrences connected with the civil power, where time will admit of it, to recur to your or their advice, and to neglect no means of cultivating and maintaining with you a perfect harmony, concert, and good understanding. Should the emergency actually exist, from that moment, of course, every description of armed force, and every association formed with a view to annoy or impede the enemy, or to support and assist our own forces, would come under the immediate orders of the military commander, and, as far as consistent with their conditions of service, taking the station assigned to each respectively in his general arrangement for the defence of his district, continue to serve in it under such orders as may be issued by those whom, in such a moment, it will be their first duty and their best interest to obey.

I have the honour to be,
my Lord,
your lordship's most obedient
humble servant,
(Signed) HENRY DUNDAS.

A Plan for driving the Live Stock of such Parts of the Country as may become exposed to the inroads of the Enemy in Case of an Invasion; as

also for saving other Descriptions of Property, as much as possible; and for rendering the Rods of the People insurmountable in the General Defence.

If an enemy should land upon our shores, every possible exertion should be made immediately to deprive him of the means of subsistence.

The navy will soon cut off his communication with the sea; the army will confine him on shore in such a way, as to make it impossible for him to draw any supplies from the adjacent country. In this situation he will be forced to lay down his arms, or to give battle on such disadvantageous terms, as can leave no doubt of his being defeated.

But if unforeseen and improbable circumstances should enable him to make some progress at first, a steady perseverance in the same system will increase his difficulties at every step; sooner or later he must inevitably pay the forfeit of his temerity.

How much the accomplishment of this object will be facilitated by driving away the live stock, and consuming, or, in case of absolute necessity, destroying all other means of subsistence, in those parts of the country which may be in imminent danger of falling into his possession, is too evident to need any discussion.

The only question is, how to effect this purpose with the greatest celerity and order, and with the least possible injury to individuals. To this end a well digested plan is obviously indispensable.

In clearing the country likely to be in this situation, the first principle is an indemnification from the community at large to the individuals for the value of all stock which may be removed in consequence of invasion,

invasion, if not restored to the respective owners; as also for whatever moveable property may be destroyed by our own arms, to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy, provided the proprietor comes forward and enters into such arrangements as may be proposed to preserve it, either by personal attendance at the time, or otherwise in some mode of service, at the moment of invasion. It must at the same time be very clearly understood, that no indemnification whatever can be allowed for any property destroyed either by our own arms, or by the enemy, if it should appear that no previous preparation or exertion had been made use of to remove it; and that all property left in this state is to be destroyed, if necessary, to prevent its falling into the enemy's hands. Upon these grounds, the following preparatory arrangements are proposed for immediate consideration.

First, The inhabitants of every parish, hundred, or other division of the county, of convenient size, should forthwith agree among themselves upon proper places of rendezvous, at which their cattle, waggon, and carts might be collected, in case of an order to drive the country being received from the general commanding in the district, or any competent person authorised by him to give such an order, or in case of any signal he or they may have appointed for this purpose being made; proper march routes should be fixed upon for driving them away to certain places of security in the interior part of the county, taking care to choose bye-roads for that purpose, that the great turnpike roads may remain entirely free for the marching of troops and artillery; and where it may be unavoidable to pass one or more of

the great roads, it should be done in such a manner, that they may only be crossed and occupied during the shortest space of time possible. If a column of troops, artillery, or army-supplies, should happen to be moving on the great road at the place of crossing, the stock may easily be stopt in its progress until the military shall have passed the same: every arrangement for these purposes must be concerted with the general commanding in the district, or submitted to his approbation.

To avoid loss, confusion, and delay in this operation, it will be necessary that the inhabitants of each parish or other division should choose from among themselves a sufficient number of persons to drive and attend the cattle, under the direction of one or more leaders, to be chosen by the proprietors; which leaders should have authority and means given them by the proprietors to provide the necessary subsistence for the cattle, and persons attending them, upon the road, and at the places of security fixed upon, and to determine the places of halting and refreshment during their march, and other arrangements of detail after their arrival. Such places as afford good water and plenty of pasture should be preferred and pointed out by the civil authority of the county, for the depôts, in concert with the general commanding the forces in the district, who is instructed to give every assistance and accommodation in his power for the protection and subsistence of the cattle, and of the persons attending the same.

It will further be advisable that it should be concerted with the general commanding in the district, that some proper person of the commissariat

commissariat staff under him should attend at each place of depôt, with instructions to give receipts, if required, for all the live and dead stock that may be brought to the depôt, or to enter the same upon a register to be opened for that purpose; but the persons who attend such stock should nevertheless remain in charge of the same, unless it should be disposed of by being appropriated to the consumption of the army. It is also to be understood, that the proprietor of any cattle or other produce that may be removed in consequence of this arrangement, or such person or persons as may be authorized by him in this respect, will have the power to send such part of the said cattle or produce, as he or they may think proper, to be disposed of at any market or place in rear of the depôt, on returning to the commissary his receipts, or noticing such disposal in the register above-mentioned, as the case may be; provided always, that the commissary should have signified that he was in no danger of wanting such cattle or produce for the supply of the army.

It should also be recommended to the proprietors to mark their cattle, not only with the initials, of their names, but also to add some distinctive mark, common to the whole parish, that confusion may be avoided, if the stock of several parishes should come to join in one body.

Second. As it may be impossible for the inhabitants, in case of alarm, immediately to remove the more bulky articles of property, such as grain, hay, and straw, which nevertheless cannot be suffered to fall into the hands of the enemy, consistently with the essential object of

depriving him of all means of subsistence, it should be recommended to them to appoint several discreet trusty persons from among themselves, to remain in the parish as long as the same shall not actually be in possession of the enemy, or entirely cut off from the army. This arrangement will not only facilitate the means of supplying our own army with what must otherwise be destroyed, to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy; but it will in many instances also diminish the chance of loss. Receipts will be given by the troops for all articles which may be taken for their use, on the production of which receipts the proprietors will afterwards be entitled to payment, at fair and reasonable prices, according to regulations to be established for that purpose. The persons so named would point out the places where supplies are deposited, and take the receipts of the troops in trust for the absent proprietors.

Third. Care should be taken by the inhabitants of such parishes as may be in imminent danger of falling into the hands of the enemy, that all mills and ovens be rendered useless to him, by carrying off or destroying some essential part of the machinery of the former, which cannot easily be replaced, and by breaking the latter. In both cases, that mode of derangement is the most eligible which, while it effectually answers the purpose, may afterwards be repaired at the smallest expence.

Fourth. A corps of guides not exceeding on horseback and on foot, consisting of those who are best acquainted with the roads, lanes, foot-paths, bridges, creeks, rivers, fording-places, and
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other communications, in the several parts of the country, should be selected in the maritime counties, and their names and places of abode be communicated to the general commanding in the district to which such counties respectively belong.

Fifth. The unarmed inhabitants will have an opportunity of rendering services equally necessary and important, by forming themselves into companies of pioneers, under the direction of leaders to be appointed by the civil authority of the county.

A numerous body of pioneers is so essential to the movements of an army, and to the obstruction of the progress of the enemy, that it is intended, in case of their being called into actual service, to make a competent daily allowance to all who may offer to come forward in the capacity of pioneers.

In that case these pioneers should, if possible, come provided with tools of the following description, viz. six pick-axes, six spades, six shovels, three bill-hooks, and four felling-axes, to every twenty-five men.

Nevertheless, it is not meant to exclude any man who may not have it in his power to bring any of these tools; let him say what tool he can bring; and if he cannot bring any, his service in some way will be acceptable notwithstanding.

The duty of the pioneers will generally consist in repairing and opening such roads, bridges, and communications, as may facilitate the movements of our own army, and in breaking up or obstructing such as it may be necessary to render impassable to the enemy.

The allowances proposed to be

made to pioneers from the day on which they may be required to assemble, until their services may no longer be wanted, are as follow :

To every able-bodied man eighteen-pence per day :

To every leader of twenty-five men and upwards, two-pence per day for every man under his command.

These leaders to be styled captains, their companies to consist of not less than twenty-five, nor more than seventy-five men. To every twenty-five men, of which a company may consist, is to be allowed one overseer, to be appointed by the captain, and removable at his pleasure, at the daily allowance of three shillings from the day on which the pioneers may be ordered to assemble.

The duty of the leaders or captains will consist in receiving such orders as may be given from time to time, by authority of the general officers commanding, for the services to be done by the pioneers, and seeing them executed with punctuality and dispatch; in keeping correct lists of the pioneers under their command, and seeing that they are constantly provided with proper tools; in maintaining order and regularity among them, and in receiving and distributing the wages to be given to them; taking proper receipts, and rendering accounts of the money entrusted to them, according to forms to be prescribed,

Each pioneer, leader, and overseer, to be at liberty to draw one ration of bread, consisting of one pound and a half, from the king's magazine, on paying for the same, at the rate of five pence for every four rations. The leaders or captains to give credit for the amount in

in their accounts; and their receipts for the bread drawn by their companies to be deemed satisfactory proof of the delivery thereof.

Sixth. To the end that the several objects treated of in this plan may be completely attained, for the general defence of the country, it is necessary that the result of the proceedings of the inhabitants thereon should be well digested, reduced to writing in a uniform manner, and made known to the general officers commanding in the district where such proceedings may take place, that they may be enabled to avail themselves thereof, and adopt corresponding measures.

A Plan for an Association of the Nobility, Gentry, and Yeomanry residing in the several Counties, to supply such Number of Waggon, Carts, and Horses, in aid of the Provisions made by the Mutiny Act, as may be necessary for carrying on his Majesty's Service; as also to contribute to the Supply of his Majesty's Forces with Flour, Wheat, Oats, Hay, Straw, and Fuel, in Case of an Invasion.

The necessity of being prepared to repel an invasion, in the present state of public affairs, is too obvious to require discussion. The only question is, how to form all necessary arrangements at the least possible expence. The country abounds in supplies of all kinds to a degree which renders the laying in of extensive magazines unnecessary. Small depôts for a few days' consumption are sufficient, provided means can be found to bring forward the resources of the country at a short notice. Depôts of this description have accordingly been formed at different places, pursuant to orders given by his royal high-

ness field-marshal the duke of York. The means of transporting them, and of obtaining and transporting such further quantities as may be necessary in cases of emergency, remain to be devised. The establishment of a waggon train of sufficient force to supply an army, would entail a very heavy expence upon the public, and take away a very considerable number of horses and men from the ordinary pursuits of agriculture. Both may be avoided by means equally simple and certain. The spirit of the country will do it most effectually; nor need that spirit be wasted to the detriment of individuals; it need only be roused at the moment of actual danger, when all is at stake, when all must give way to the primary object of self-preservation.

Such of the nobility, gentry and yeomanry of the county, as may approve the measure, should be requested to subscribe a paper, expressing opposite to their names the number of waggons and carts provided with tilts, and the number of horses, drivers and conductors, which they propose to furnish respectively.

The waggons, carts, &c. subscribed for, or such part as may be required from time to time, ought to march as soon as possible, and at latest on the next morning after notice received to that effect.

The waggons, carts, &c. marching in conformity to such notice, to continue at the disposal and under the orders of the king's officers, as the service may require.

The said waggons and carts to travel at the rate of five miles in every two hours; twenty-five miles when loaded, and thirty miles when empty, in every twenty-four hours.

One or more discreet and intelligent persons, besides the drivers,

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should accompany each detachment of ten waggons or carts, and upwards. These persons should be styled waggon-conductors, and their duty should consist in superintending the drivers, that there may be regularity and dispatch upon the road.

The commissary-general to pay to the persons who may be appointed agreeably to this and the second article, for their trouble and expences, at the following rates, viz.

For every empty waggon procured, in consequence of notice given, 1s.; for every empty cart 9d.; for every sack of flour of 28lb. net, loaded agreeably to the twelfth article, 2d.; for every sack of oats of four bushels, loaded as above 1d.; for every ton of hay, straw, or fuel, loaded as above, 20d.; but no charge to be made for procuring the waggons and carts respectively, unless they go empty.

A Plan for ensuring a regular Supply of Bread to his Majesty's Forces, in Case of an Invasion.

The establishment of flour magazines, and of a field bakery, of sufficient force to supply an army, would entail a very heavy expence upon the public, which can only be avoided by ascertaining under this head the resources of the country, and the means of bringing them forward in case of emergency, without previously making any extensive preparations.—Returns have been procured of the bakers and ovens at most of the considerable places in several counties, from which it appears, that they are capable, on any emergency, of baking for four times, nay, many of them six times the number of their

inhabitants and troops now in garrison; and that, with the help of additional journeymen bakers, they can supply double that quantity. All other counties may, without risk of error, be supposed equally capable with those above alluded to. Grain and mills abound every where. The result is, that an army of 30,000 men may, without difficulty, be supplied with bread in any situation, at four or five days' notice, and even two or three times that number, at a longer notice, provided such preparatory arrangements are concerted with the millers and bakers as will enable the country to do justice to itself.

[Here follow directions to the miller or baker.]

Cartel for the Exchange of Prisoners of War between Great Britain and France.

We, the undersigned commissioners for the transport service, and for the care and custody of prisoners of war, on the part and in the name of his Britannic majesty, and monsieur Joseph Nion, commissary for prisoners of war, on the part and in the name of the French government; being duly authorised to take proper measures for carrying into execution an exchange of prisoners, have agreed upon the following articles.

I. An exchange of prisoners of war shall immediately take place between the two countries, man for man, and rank for rank; and the French government shall begin, by sending over to England, in a French cartel-vessel, a number of British prisoners, with the proportion of five officers to one hundred men; upon the arrival of whom in England,

England, the British government will cause an equal number of the same ranks of French prisoners to be sent, in an English cartel-vessel, to France. The British government shall then cause to be sent to France, in an English cartel-vessel, a number of French prisoners, with the same proportion of officers as above mentioned, for whom the French government shall return, by a French cartel-vessel, the same number and ranks of British prisoners. The exchange shall be continued according to the same alternate plan, until one or the other of the two governments shall think proper to put a stop thereto; and, in that case, the party so discontinuing is to return, without delay, whatever number of prisoners may appear to be against it on the balance of the exchanges that may to that time have taken place in consequence of this cartel.

II. In order to prevent any difficulties that might otherwise arise from the diversity of ranks of officers in the service of the two countries, it is hereby agreed, that the table, hereunto annexed, of corresponding ranks in the English and French services, shall uniformly be attended to by both parties, and that officers, on either side, of ranks of which there shall be no corresponding officer or officers in possession of the other power, shall be exchanged for their equivalent, according to the scale of value in men specified in the said table.

III. All the prisoners on both sides, to be exchanged by this cartel, shall be selected according to their ranks, by the respective agents of the countries to which they belong, residing at Paris or in London, without any interference whatever on the part of the government in whose possession they may be.

IV. It being stipulated, that the British prisoners shall be sent to England in French vessels, and the French prisoners conveyed to France in British vessels, it is hereby agreed, that the whole expense attending such vessels shall be defrayed by the respective countries by which they may be employed; and that the prisoners, during their passage, shall be furnished with the following daily allowances, viz.

British Prisoners.

	lb.
Bread	- - - 1
Beef	- - - 1
Beer 2 quarts, or wine 1 quart.	

French Prisoners.

Bread	- - - 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Beef	- - - $\frac{3}{4}$
Beer, 2 quarts.	

A table of which allowances is to be affixed to the mast of each cartel-vessel.

V. All prisoners on both sides, not being officers, who, from wounds, age, or infirmities, are rendered incapable of further service, and also all boys under twelve years of age, shall be forthwith returned to their respective countries, without regard to their numbers or equality of exchange; but the selection of persons of the descriptions mentioned in this article, is to be left entirely to the agents and surgeons of the government of the country in which they are detained.

VI. All surgeons, surgeons' mates, pursers (or *aides-commissaires*), pursers' stewards (or *commis aux vivres*), secretaries, chaplains, and schoolmasters, being the classes comprehended under the denomination of non-combattants, and also passengers not of the sea or land service, in whatever ships taken, shall not be considered as prisoners, but shall be immediately set at liberty, to return to their re-

spective countries, without being placed to the account of exchange.

VII. All officers bearing authentic commissions in the land service, and those belonging to the sea service of the following ranks, viz.

Admirals,
Vice Admirals,
Rear Admirals,
Commodores,
Captains,
Lieutenants,
Ensigns,
Masters,
Mates (or *Pilots*),
Midshipmen (or *Aspirants*),

and also masters, and mates, or second captains, of merchant vessels exceeding the burthen of eighty tons, together with the captain, and in the proportion of three other officers to each hundred men, of privateers of fourteen carriage guns and upwards, shall either be permitted to return to their respective countries on parole not to serve until regularly exchanged; or shall have the usual indulgence of parole granted to them in the country in which they are detained. And it is agreed, that whatever officers may by virtue of this article return to their respective countries, shall be suffered to depart from their present places of confinement, to Dover, or Gravelines, as soon as conveniently may be after the signing of the present cartel; and also, that all officers, residing on parole in their own countries, shall signify to the agent of the country to

which they are prisoners their respective places of residence, which they are on no account to change, without first intimating their intention to the said agent; and they are, moreover, at the expiration of every two months, to transmit to the said agent a certificate of the particular places where they may reside, signed by the magistrates, or municipal officers, of such places.

VIII. The settlement of the balance now existing on the account of such exchanges of prisoners of war of both countries, as have taken place from the commencement of hostilities to the day of the date hereof, shall be deferred until the termination of the present war; but it is clearly understood, that all officers, on both sides, who have been released and permitted to return to their respective countries on parole, since the commencement of the war, and who have not hitherto been regularly exchanged, are not to serve in any capacity, either civil or military, until they shall have been duly exchanged for prisoners of equal ranks, according to their original engagements.

Done at the Transport-Office, London, the 13th day of September, 1798.

RUPERT GEORGE,
AMBROSE SERLE,
JOHN SCHANK,
JOHN MARSH.

TABLE of the corresponding Ranks in the English and French Service, with their Value in Men.

RANKS IN THE NAVY.

FRENCH.	ENGLISH.	Value in Men.
Vice-Admiral, commanding in chief, having the temporary rank of admiral.	Admiral commanding in chief.	60
Vice-admiral.	Admiral carrying his flag at the main: Vice-admiral.	40
	Rear-	

		Value in Men.
Rear-admiral.	Rear-admiral.	- 30
Chief of a squadron.	Commodore	- 20
Captain of a ship of the line.	Post-captain of three years standing, whose rank answers to that of colonel; ditto, having rank of lieutenant-colonel.	- 15
Captain of a frigate.	Masters and commanders, or captains not post, having rank of major, amongst whom are included captains of fire ships, who are masters and commanders.	8
Lieutenant of a ship of the line.	Lieutenant without distinction.	- 6
Ensign of a ship of the line.	Lieutenant, when all the French shall be exchanged; and in default of English lieutenants, midshipmen.	4
Midshipman, master of a merchant vessel, and captain of a privateer.	Midshipman, master of a merchant vessel, and captain of a privateer.	- 3
Lieutenant of a merchant vessel or privateer, and all petty officers.	Mates and all petty officers.	2
Seamen, volunteers, and others, being considered as common seamen.	Seamen, volunteers, and others, being considered as common seamen.	- 1

RANKS IN THE LAND SERVICE.

FRENCH.

General of Division, commanding in Chief
General of division.
General of brigade.
Inferior to the preceding: superior to the following.
Chief of brigade.
Chief of battalion or squadron.
Captain.
Lieutenant.
Sous-Lieutenant.
Non-commissioned officers, down to the rank of corporal, inclusive.
Soldiers.

ENGLISH.

Captain-general, or field-marshal.	-	60
General.	-	40
Lieutenant-general.	-	30
Major-general.	-	20
Brigadier-general.	-	15
Colonel.	-	8
Captain.	-	6
Lieutenant.	-	4
Ensign.	-	3
Non-commissioned officers, down to the rank of corporal, inclusive	-	2
Soldiers.	-	1

RUPERT GEORGE.
AMBROSE SERLE.
JOHN SCHANK.
JOHN MARSH.
NIOU.

Manifesto of the Executive Directory against the Kings of Naples and Sardinia, in a Message to the Council of Five Hundred.

The Executive Directory to the Council of Five Hundred.

Citizen Representatives,

The executive directory, in their message of the 6th inst. announced to you that they should shortly transmit to you the details which make manifest the long train of perfidy of which the court of Naples have been guilty, brought to the height by an audacious attack on the French Republic. It this day lays before you details which will prove not less clearly the hostile connivance of the court of Turin, which, joined to the machinations of the Sicilian king, have rendered that proposition necessary which they made to you to declare war against the kings of Naples and Sardinia. For a long time has Europe resounded with accounts of the perfidy of the Neapolitans, and for a long time must it have been astonished at the magnanimous moderation of the executive directory; while, on the other hand, the sincere desire of the French government to live at peace with the king of Naples, was not less manifest. Superior to the just indignation which this court had provoked in so many ways—a court that, during the whole course of the war of the coalesced monarchs, distinguished itself by the most insensate fury against the republic—the French government received with the most pure benevolence the first propositions which were made to them for a good understanding between the two states; they made no other use of the su-

periority which our victories gave them than for the purposes of moderation; in a word, all the advantages of the treaty were as reciprocal as if the successes of the war had been equal.

Such magnanimity should have for ever put an end to the malevolent dispositions of this court, and should have attached them to the republic by ties of gratitude as well as of interest. But its blindness prevented it from laying aside its hostile prejudices. It gave way without reserve to all the hopes to which the idea of the destruction of the republic gave rise, while we alone were capable of defending them; and it took advantage of peace only for the purpose of carrying on secret hostility; while we on our part were the most rigid observers of the treaty. This contrast will be made to appear from incontestable facts. It would be needless here to recall to the recollection of our readers the odious and revolting conduct which distinguished the cabinet of Naples during the continuation of the war. Let us begin from the period when the republic, putting a stop to the progress of their victories, consented to grant it peace. From that period, from October 1795, by what inexplicable conduct has that perfidious court been distinguished!

When the French government shewed itself resolute to overthrow that impious government which caused our warriors to be assassinated, the court of Naples, whose agents, it is obvious, were not strangers to these crimes, after having in vain attempted to aggrandise themselves with the ruins of that of Rome, which they feigned to respect, opposed all the resistance in their power to prevent the establishment of a republic on that soil,

soil, which was become the conquered land of liberty; this court increased her armaments, and marched towards the frontiers troops, prepared to enter the Roman territory. All these extraordinary preparations she justified on futile pretences. She received, the discontented at Rome with open arms, fomented the troubles which she had excited there; furnished the rebels with provisions and an asylum, and never ceased to assume towards this new republic the most threatening attitude. While she dared not openly declare war against France, she fought to destroy in Italy all the free states which were under her protection.

The French government might without doubt have inflicted signal vengeance for this public protection which was granted to the frequent insurrections formed at Rome against the French army, as well as for the increased number of spies with which our agent at Naples was surrounded. But far from giving way to this just sentiment, the directory did not think proper to oppose the taking possession of the duchy of Benevento. They even offered their mediation to deliver the king of Naples from the feudal pretensions which Rome had on his estates. But this was not all. They sent to Naples a new ambassador, furnished with the most amicable and conciliatory powers. At the moment in which the army commanded by Buonaparte failed, the executive directory were anxious to satisfy the king of Naples as to the object of this expedition. In short, they addressed to him the most repeated protestations of their unalterable desire to maintain tranquility in Italy; adding, it is true, a not less energetic wish, that the Roman republic, which had been

placed by the current of events under the special protection of the French republic, might be able to consolidate its political existence.

But neither friendly intercourse, nor the voice of reason, nor the necessity of peace, could inspire these sentiments in the breast of that court. Every pretence was made use of to justify her complaints, her threats, and, at length, her numerous infractions of treaty.

The French republic replied to the manifesto of Malta by the conquest of that island; at that moment the court of Naples, with the most ridiculous hauteur, dared to revive its pretensions on a country which it had neither governed by its laws nor by its arms; and the French government did not disdain to reply at length to this nonsensical pretension, as if it could have been supported by the least appearance of reason.

From the moment of signing of peace, all the acts, as well public as private, of this court, have been distinguished for perfidy and hatred towards the French. The treaty was signed, and the court delayed to publish it from motives of respect for the courts of London and Vienna. The seventh article promised liberty to all the French who were detained for political opinions, and all the Neapolitans suspected of having any connection with them, who were imprisoned. At the solicitation of our agents, some of the peaceful friends to the French republic were restored to liberty, but upon the most vain pretences they were loaded with fresh chains. At length the French, whom commercial affairs alone detained in the states of the king of Naples, were every day, merely because they were French, publicly insulted, attacked, and even assassinated;
and

and these attempts remained unpunished.

The third article of the treaty stipulated that "his majesty the king of the Two Sicilies shall observe the most strict neutrality towards all the belligerent powers, and he therefore engages to forbid, without distinction, the entry into his ports, of all armed vessels belonging to the hostile powers, exceeding the number of four, at most, according to the known laws of neutrality. All ammunition or merchandise known as contraband, shall be refused to them."

How has this article, the sense of which is by no means ambiguous, been executed?

Forty days after the conclusion of the treaty, the English had seven frigates in the port of Naples; on the 9th Thermidor the fourteen vessels of admiral Nelson entered, at full sail, the ports of Augusta and Syracuse, and in whatever manner this article be interpreted, it is obvious, that this was an infraction of it. The government of Naples thought themselves obliged to justify this proceeding, by representing that it was not in their power to resist force; a contemptible subterfuge, because it did not even attempt resistance, and because the senate of Syracuse received the English admiral with honours. About this period too, the 17th Thermidor, five Portuguese ships of war and three English ships were received with equal eagerness in the port of Naples.

With respect to the furnishing of articles forbidden by this treaty, is it not notorious that immediately after the conclusion of the peace, the French attempting to prevent the English from getting provisions, the Neapolitan government gave orders to the governor of Orbitello

to hinder them from passing, while he suffered a considerable corps of emigrants, who were in the service of England, to be disembarked? Is it not notorious that the fleet of admiral Nelson was first victualled in the port of Sicily; that on its return afterwards to Naples, it received, from the arsenal of the king, the stores of which it stood in need? Is it not notorious that long before this epoch, on the 29th Prairial, the whole of the English fleet having appeared before Naples, a brig was detached, which anchored in the port, and two officers who came from on board it had a conversation with general Acton and the queen, in order to secure whatever might be necessary to the success of the attack upon the French fleet; that in addition to the assistance and the assurances they received from them, pilots were also furnished to clear the streights of Messina, a passage which no squadron, without such assistance, would have dared to attempt, and in consequence of which they hoped to be able to cut off the French fleet, which were supposed to be yet at Malta? In a word, is it not clear that nothing that could be injurious to France has been refused, by the court of Naples, to our implacable enemies?

If in addition to this the conduct which Naples has directly manifested towards us be considered, if it be recollected that in spite of the fourth article of the treaty, which stipulates "that the King of Naples shall be bound to grant in all his roads and ports surety and protection to all French merchant ships, however numerous, and to all ships of war, which shall not exceed four;" several of the convoy of the French fleet having been obliged to anchor in the roads of Sicily, commotions, evidently excited

cited by the government of Naples, broke out at Trapani, at Gergenti, and at Messina. In which several of the French soldiers who went on shore were assassinated; if it be recollected, that, since Malta has been in the hands of the French, the Maltese boats which came as usual to take in provisions in Sicily were prevented, the gates shut against them, and they were repulsed with fire-arms; that the plan of surprising Malta while it remained in the hands of the French, was not even dissembled by the Neapolitan government; and that a Maltese bark which was carrying French commissaries sent to the viceroy of Sicily, having been forced by an English sloop to take refuge at Alciata, the crew having landed, were immediately pursued with musketry by the Sicilians, and forced to reembark, when the bark was immediately taken by the English, without the Neapolitan government making the smallest representation to cause the neutrality to be respected. If too it be added, that on another occasion one of our corsairs having been carried off by force in the port of Baratto, the governor of that place did not condescend to take any measures to prevent such an attack upon the sovereignty of the king of the Two Sicilies, and in short, that such is the hostile delirium and hatred of the king of Naples towards the French and their allies, that, in contempt of all the ties which should bind him to the king of Spain, he has had the impudence to receive in his ports a Spanish prize taken by the English.

If too we recollect the inconceivable joy which was manifested at Naples on the sight of the English fleet, the public honours which the court itself lavished on admiral Nelson, in going out to welcome

him; his triumphal entry, the large reward granted to the messenger who brought the first account of his victory, and the illuminations and rejoicings which took place on the occasion:

If it be remembered, that from the time of this victory the audacity of the Neapolitan government has known no bounds; that lately an unrestrained populace broke the windows of our consul at Naples, without the Neapolitan government having taken any measures to repress such an insult; that the late sedition at Malta was openly protected in the Neapolitan states; that the markets and all the public places resounded with the most terrible invectives against us; that all who were inclined to encourage peace with France, were persecuted with the most acrimonious rage; that at length a barbarous order was issued by the king of Naples, menacing with death whoever should carry provisions to the French at Malta—If all these circumstances are considered, it must be allowed that more hostile sentiments never were manifested than on one side, nor more patience shewn than on the other.

The executive directory, however, put off as long as possible the moment in which it was to wreak the vengeance of the nation. It was made clear to demonstration to them that the court of Naples did not confine its hostility against the republic to complaints, menaces, or fury; that after having for a long time after the conclusion of the peace shewn the most hostile disposition, it had for a long time been at open hostility, and had lavished succours of all kinds on our most cruel enemy; that in short she was become the ally of Great Britain, and as useful to that power as she

was

was prejudicial to us; and yet the French government, faithful to its desire of preserving peace even with Naples, was willing to hope that there was yet a possibility of repentance. This honourable illusion has been, however, dissipated by the Neapolitan government, which has brought its long train of perjuries to the height. It has dared to attack suddenly the French army, and to accompany this aggression with the most insolent menaces. The republican energy, long confined, will now break forth with the strength of thunder; and this court, too long time spared, which, imitating the illegal conduct of the British government, has dared to be guilty of breaking the laws of peace, without having the courage to declare war, will at length receive the reward of its demerits.

But it is necessary too, that those who have shewn themselves its accomplices, should also share the same fate. The Sardinian government has been the associate of its perfidies, and a similar fate awaits it. Its guilt, as an accomplice with Naples, is manifest from a thousand circumstances; its sentiments, its language, and even its actions, in proportion to its means, have been the same, and its artifice and hypocrisy exactly resemble that of Naples. It would be difficult to account for its recent conduct towards France, if history did not, in all ages, make manifest the cunning and versatile politics of this court, constantly occupied in fomenting war among its neighbours, in taking a part in all the wars of Italy, and in shamelessly deserting its allies, in constantly joining that side which appeared most strong, in order to oppress the weak, and in gratifying its revenge, its ambition,

and in offering its support for sale, to whoever was inclined to purchase it.

Independently of every other cause of complaint, who would believe that the treaty which we deigned to conclude with the court of Turin, and which they ought to have considered as a signal favour, has not yet been published in all the states of the king of Sardinia. The agents of the republic have in vain requested that this might be done; their resistance has been invincible, and the most futile reasons have been assigned as a pretence for this delay, or rather for this refusal. In fact, they have never ceased to make war in every way which their imbecility and their cowardice suffered them to put into execution. Our most cruel enemies, the emigrants and refractory priests, have constantly met with a welcome reception in his dominions: there they have been suffered to give free vent to their hatred, and to the expressions of their barbarous wishes against the republic. They have even been able to excite the people against the French, by the most atrocious calumnies. This is not all: from the moment in which peace was signed, the French, almost under the eyes of their ambassadors, have been assassinated in cold blood, and that chiefly by the regular troops. These assassinations have been committed almost daily, and the number of them is dreadful when the total amount shall be known. Some of them have fallen by the stileto, some have been mutilated in the most dreadful manner. A volunteer, of the 68th demi-brigade, was buried alive, after having been barbarously wounded. He was seen coming alive out of the grave in which he had been buried.

He was destined to escape, in order to offer a proof of this dreadful cruelty.

The agents of the French republic have expressed, in the name of the republic, the most energetic indignation; but they have been unable to prevent these crimes from going unnoticed or unpunished. Some banditti, enrolled under the name of *Barbets*, whose business it is to rob and pillage, but whose amusement it is to kill republicans, far from being dissipated by public authority, appear to be encouraged by it. Their thefts on the Piedmontese were forgiven, in consideration of their murder of the French. On this subject a long negotiation was entered into, which was considered by the Sardinian government as a public calamity, the object of which was not to obtain the suppression of, but the mere promise to repress these banditti. On this condition the support of our arms was promised to them. But the Sardinian government was unwilling to obtain tranquillity at this price, and after all would not consent to issue a law against filletos and concealed arms, so fearful were they that the French should by any means be secure in their states; and during the course of the negotiation, and in spite of the formal promise to suspend a proceeding in which the most furious passions were manifested, several Frenchmen who were implicated in an unhappy affair were shot without pity.

Besides these enrolled banditti, besides judiciary banditti, the *Duc d'Angi*, a monster, the brother of the king, and the heir to the throne, like another *Old Man of the Mountain*, never ceased to keep under his orders, and in his pay, a band of cut-throats, to whom he issued orders to

assassinate such and such a Frenchman, and these orders were but too faithfully executed.

It is in vain to suppose that all these crimes were not imputable to the Sardinian government, since the whole of its conduct has proved that it was privy to every one of them. The principal places in Piedmont were occupied by French troops; for those no provisions were to be obtained. The friends of the republic were constantly thrown into prison, the Frenchmen insulted, and even their dress turned into derision; the emigrants were encouraged in their audacity; those public officers who were most distinguished for their hatred towards the French, chiefly promoted; the *Barbets* protected, even openly by their first magistrates; poniards forged and distributed to a vast number: in short, the most dreadful plots against the French were planned and ready to be carried into execution. From an interrogatory exhibited to one of the chiefs of the *Barbets*, it appears that a person who was employed in the custom-house at Turin, and who was commissioned to pay these banditti, had received from the Sardinian government orders to distribute among the chiefs of them boxes of poison, to be thrown into the wells which lay nearest to the French camp.

It is evident that there exists the most intimate connection between the conduct of such a government as this and that of the court of Naples, in their hostility to the French republic; this connection, maintained and supported by so many crimes, would alone be sufficient to implicate the court of Turin in the guilt of the other: but a stronger proof is added, in the circumstance of

of the preparations for war being increased at Turin, in proportion as those at Naples were multiplied. The militia in the former place were called forth, and thirty thousand stand of arms were delivered to them.

The Piedmontese troops marched towards Loana and Onella at the same moment in which the Neapolitan army attacked the French troops on the territory of the Roman republic, in which fix thousand Neapolitans disembarked at Leghorn, and in which a new disembarkation was threatened on the coast of Liguria. It was in the same moment that the order to march on the first signal was given; that Turin was filled with troops; that 1500 poniards were distributed; that the citadel was nearly besieged; that the heights which command it were furnished with an extraordinary number of cannon; and that the Sardinian government dared to require the evacuation of the citadel and the diminution of our troops in Piedmont.

In this situation of affairs it was impossible for the French government to separate two courts obviously so hostilely united against the French republic. But the directory declares solemnly to Europe, that, whatever may be the result of this war, no ambitious views shall intermeddle in the purity of the motives which have induced them to take up arms, and they declare to all governments, guiltless of the perfidy of the Neapolitans, that the treaties which bind them shall never have been more faithfully observed in times past, than they shall be in times to come.

(Signed)

LA REVEILLERE LEPAUX.

Manifesto of the Sublime Porte, communicated to our esteemed Friend, the Minister Plenipotentiary of the Court of Great Britain, at Constantinople, the 11th of September, 1798.

It is notorious, that the peace and good harmony which, since time immemorial, have existed between the Sublime Porte and the court of France, have never been interrupted by enmity and misunderstanding; but that, on the contrary, until this period, the Sublime Porte has made it her uniform and constant study, scrupulously to maintain the treaties, to fulfil the duties of amity with care, and upon every occasion to give proofs of her sincerity and friendship.

At the time when the revolution first broke out in France, six years ago, when most of the powers in Europe confederated against that country, the Sublime Porte, although a witness to the improper proceedings of those who held the reins of government by usurpation, chose rather, in observance of her antient amity with the French nation, to remain neutral: and though she had been several times invited by the allied courts to join with them, and to break with France; although the troubles of that country had become more and more violent at that particular period, when an army had reached near Paris; whilst soon after the fortresses of Valenciennes, Condé, and Quesnoy, the keys of France, on the northern side, were taken by the Austrian arms; Toulon, the only arsenal of the French in the Mediterranean, had fallen into the hands of the English, with the ships of war which were in it; and, by an increased party of royalists in their provinces, the situation of the government

vernment had become more critical, and perplexity and distress prevailed on every side; yet the Sublime Porte, notwithstanding that it depended only upon herself to join with the other powers, nevertheless, giving way to her known principles of justice, did no ways consent to deviate from the line of a neutral conduct.

On the contrary, considering that, if under the circumstances of a strong famine, by which France, blocked up by sea and land was afflicted, the Sublime Porte had also broken off her connection, their distressed situation would have been such as to throw the inhabitants into total desolation and despair; she abstained from that measure; and she hereby asks, whether it be not a fact, that the liberality which she has shewn to them, from time to time, has brought complaints against her from other powers?

The extensive advantages which the French have reaped from the Sublime Porte's remaining neutral, during the course of the war, become clear and evident by a moment's glance at the events of the war, and the public transactions during that period. Whilst, therefore, in consideration of the uniform acts of condescension thus observed towards them by the Sublime Porte, they, on their side, ought also to have been steady in preserving peace; yet, those among them, who found the means of assuming to themselves the reins of government by favour of the revolution, began to devise various pretences, and, under an illusive idea of liberty—a liberty so called in word, but which in reality knows no other laws but the subversion of every established government (after the example of France), the abo-

lishment of all religions, the destruction of every country, the plunder of property, and the dissolution of all human society—to occupy themselves in nothing but in misleading and imposing upon the ignorant amongst the people, pretending to reduce mankind to the state of the brute creation; and this, to favour their own private interests, and render the government permanent in their own hands.

Actuated by such principles, they made it their maxim to stir up and corrupt, indiscriminately, the subjects of every power, whether distant or near, either in peace or at war, and to excite them to revolt against their natural sovereigns and government.

Whilst, on one hand, their minister at Constantinople, pursuant to that system of duplicity and deceit which is their custom every where, made professions of friendship for the Ottoman empire, endeavouring to make the Sublime Porte the dupe of their insidious projects, and to forward their object of exciting her against other friendly powers; the commanders and generals of their army in Italy, upon the other hand, were engaged in the heinous attempt of perverting the subjects of his majesty the Grand Signior, by sending agents (persons notorious for their intriguing practice) into Anatolia, Morea, and the islands of the Archipelago, and by spreading manifestoes of the most insidious tenor, among which the one addressed by Buonaparte to the people of Macri, with several others distributed by the same, are sufficiently known to the public.

Upon the Sublime Porte's complaining to the directory of this conduct of their commanders and generals,

generals, their answer was—that all proceedings on the part of their officers, contrary to friendship, were not with the consent of the directory; that the same should be prevented, and their officers warned against it; the wish of the French government being to strengthen more and more the antient friendship subsisting with the Sublime Porte.

In consequence of this answer, delivered officially on their part, it was expected that the said generals would have left off their seditious pursuits. But nevertheless, no change appearing in their conduct, and their perseverance in such insidious practices being greater than ever, it became obvious that the answers of the directory were only fictitious and deceitful; that the intriguing attempts of their agents could not but be dictated by the instructions which were given them; and consequently, that any further complaint would be of no avail whatever.

Notwithstanding these transactions, however, the Sublime Porte, in the hopes of the directory altering its system of conduct, and laying aside the senseless pursuit of wishing to overturn the universe; in expectation of seeing things in France, from the harassed situation of that country, at length take a different turn, by the people refusing to bear any longer those intolerable evils and disasters which have been brought upon them, from the personal views of a few upstart individuals, since the commencement of the revolution; and with the view of preventing secret enmity from producing an open rupture, did not alter her course, but preferred keeping silence.

In the beginning of the war with the other powers, the French go-

vernment had declared, that their intention was not to acquire new territory, but, on the contrary, to restore every such conquest as might have been made by their arms during the contest: contrary to which, they not only have kept possession of various extensive provinces, snatched by them from the belligerent powers; but not content with this, profiting by the changes which had prevailed among the allied courts through their intrigues, have put off the mask entirely; and, developing their secret views, without reason or justice have fallen upon several free and independent republics and states who had held themselves neutral, like the Sublime Porte, invading their territories when least provided with the means of defence, and subjecting them to their will by open force and hostility.

Thus, no one being left to controul them, they tore the veil of all decorum at once; and, unmindful of the obligations of treaties, and to convince the world that friendship and enmity are the same thing in their eyes, contrary to the rights of nations, and in violation of the ties subsisting between the two courts, they came, in a manner altogether unprecedented, like a set of pirates, and made a sudden invasion in Egypt, the most precious among the provinces of the Ottoman Porte; of which they took forcible possession at a time when they had experienced nothing from this court but demonstrations of friendship.

Upon the first surmise of the French project to invade that province, Ruffin, their chargé d'affaires at this residence, was invited to a conference, where he was questioned officially about this business: he first declared he had no intelligence

gence whatever respecting it; but he gave it, as a speculation of his own, that if such an enterprize ever proved true, it probably must be to take revenge of the beys, and to annoy and attack the English settlements in the East Indies.

In answer to this, it was circumstantially stated to him, that the smallest attempt, on the part of the French, upon Cairo, on whatever pretext it might be founded, would be taken as a declaration of war, and thereby the friendship subsisting between the two courts since the most ancient times, would, both in a legal and political sense, be converted into enmity; and the Ottoman empire would not suffer the loss of a handful of sand of the Egyptian territory; that the whole Ottoman sect would set itself in motion for the deliverance of those blessed lands; and that if the chastisement of the beys of Egypt was necessary, it behoved the Sublime Porte to inflict it on them as her dependents; that the interference of the French in this business was inconsistent with the rights of nations; that the court of Great Britain being the dearest friend of the Ottoman empire, the Sublime Porte would never consent to the passage of French troops through her territory to act against their settlements; that in short, should even their expedition to Egypt have no other object but this; it would be equally construed into a declaration of war: of all which he was charged to make the earliest communication to the directory in this very language.

Dispatches, bearing instructions to the same effect, were at the same time written to Aali Efendi, the Sublime Porte's ambassador at Paris, who was moreover directed to

demand officially an explanation of the matter upon the spot.

Before the communications sent by Ruffin to the directory, and the dispatches transmitted by the Sublime Porte to her ambassador before named, a letter of an old date was received by the said Ruffin, expressing that Buonaparte's expedition to Egypt was true; but that the object was to secure some commercial advantages, by bringing the beys to an account, and to hurt Great Britain; that an ambassador had been appointed to prefer several propositions favourable to the interests of the Ottoman Porte, and to adjust the affair in question; with this further ridiculous hint, that were the Porte to declare war for this against the republic, both courts would lay themselves open to an attack on the part of the emperor; all this the said chargé-d'affaires delivered officially, and he also presented a copy of that letter.

Upon the other hand, in the answer received meanwhile from the Ottoman ambassador above mentioned, it was stated, that, in conformity to his instructions, he had had an interview with Talleyrand Perigord, the minister of external relations, in which he had produced his dispatches, explained their purport, and demanded, officially, a categorical answer: that the said minister (forgetting, as it is to be supposed, the tenor of the letter which had been written to Ruffin some time before) positively disavowed the expedition against Egypt, and said that Buonaparte's commission had no other object but the conquest of Malta; that the abolition of the order there being a measure conducive to the benefit of all the Turks, the Sublime Porte ought to feel even obliged by it; that the directory had nothing more at heart

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than to maintain the peace existing with the Porte since time immemorial, and more and more to strengthen the same; thus barefacedly exhibiting a farce of the most artful duplicity.

The wide contradiction between the above two communications being visibly a fresh artifice by which to mislead the Ottoman Porte with her eyes open, and to gain time until intelligence could be procured respecting the affairs of Egypt, the result of which had not then come to their knowledge, must not this most extraordinary event be taken as a palpable demonstration, that the directors of the French government, to second their own ambition and arrogance, have actually lost all recollection of those laws observed and maintained in every regular government, and that no faith whatever is to be placed in their words and professions?

From the tenor of their arbitrary proceedings and despotic conduct, as too well witnessed from first to last, it is clear and evident that their project is no other but to banish every orderly institution from the face of the world; to overset human society; and, by an alternate play of secret intrigue or open hostility, as best suits their end, to derange the constitution of every established independent state, by creating (as they have done in Italy) a number of small republics, of which the French is to be the parent mother, and thus to sway and to conduct every thing after their own will every where.

Now Egypt being the portal of the two venerable cities, Mecca and Medina, and the present operations in that quarter being of a nature affecting all the Mahomedan world at large, the Sublime Porte,

consistently with her express declarations to the above French chargé-d'affaires, and through her ambassador to the directory at Paris, feels compelled, by every law, to resist the sudden and unprovoked aggressions and hostilities committed by the French as above, and, with a full confidence in the assistance of the omnipotent God, to set about repelling and destroying the enemy by sea and land. Thus to wage war against France is become a precept of religion incumbent upon all Mussulmen.

In consequence whereof, the afore-named chargé-d'affaires, together with the officers of that mission, have been sent to the Seven Towers, to be detained there as hostages until such time as Aali Effendi before named, and those of his retinue, be arrived from Paris: and the consuls, merchants, and French properties in Constantinople, and in other parts of the Ottoman empire, shall also be kept in deposit, and as a security, until the merchants, dependents of the Sublime Porte, with their shipping and properties, as also the public ships, with their equipages, detained in the province of Egypt (prisoners of war excepted) be set at liberty.

To repel the perfidy of these usurpers, who have raised the standard of rebellion and trouble in France, is a measure in which not the safety and tranquillity of the Sublime Porte alone, but also that of all the powers in Europe is concerned. Wherefore the best hopes are entertained of the cordial co-operation of all friendly courts, as well as of their disposition to fulfil, by every means in their power, their duties of friendship and of assistance in the present cause.

1 Rebulakir, 1213.

(11 September, 1798.)

Imperial

Imperial Decree, promulgated at the Porte, on Saturday, 1st September.

To you, Kaimakam-Pasha, these are addressed.

Ever since the supreme vizir, Izzed Mehemmed pasha, came to that office, instructions were constantly given him to attend to the defence of the Ottoman dominions, and never to be off his guard against the plots of enemies. He, however, from selfish motives, has attended to nothing but his own interest; so that in the dark himself, with respect to the evil designs of those brutish * infidels the French, from not procuring proper intelligence, he did not apprise the inhabitants of Egypt thereof in good time.

When the unhappy tidings from thence came to our imperial ear, a full month after that insufferable event had come to pass, such were our grief and concern, that, we take God to witness, it drew tears from our eyes, and deprived us of sleep and rest.

We have, therefore, immediately deposed him from the office of grand vizir, and have appointed, in his place, Yousouff pasha, governor of Erzerum; until whose arrival at our sublime gate we appoint and constitute you, Mustafa bey, to be Kaimakum.

Now, it being incumbent upon all true believers to combat those faithless brutes the French, and it being become a positive duty for our imperial person to deliver the blessed territories from their accursed hands, and to revenge the insults which they have offered to muslimans, no delay whatever is to take place for the arrival of the new vizir; but the most vigorous

measures must be pursued to attack them by sea and land.

Wherefore, by a deliberation with the illustrious lawyers, ministers, and chieftains, our subjects, you must (with a full confidence in God and his prophet) fix upon the effectual means of freeing the province of Egypt from the presence of such wretches. You will acquaint all the true believers in the respective quarters that we are at war with the French; and, turning night into day, will apply your utmost efforts to take revenge of them.

You will adopt the most vigilant conduct towards defending the other Mohamedan provinces, and our imperial frontiers, from the plots and malice of the enemy, by the due reinforcement of every port and place with troops and military stores.

You will likewise direct your zealous attention towards the due supply of daily provisions to the inhabitants of this our imperial residence; and will watch over the affairs of all persons in general, until the supreme vizir do arrive.

We shall observe your exertions; and may the omnipotent God ordain his divine favour to attend our undertakings, and render us successful in the vindication of our cause.

The following Message from the President of the United States was read in the House of Representatives on Monday the 19th of March, 1798.

Gentlemen of the Senate, and
Gentlemen of the House of
Representatives,

The dispatches from the envoys extraordinary of the United States to the French republic, which were

* Original, *Sabou*.

mentioned in my message to both houses of congress, of the 5th inst. have been examined and maturely considered.

While I feel a satisfaction in informing you, that their exertions for the adjustment of the differences between the two nations have been sincere and unremitted, it is incumbent on me to declare, that I perceive no ground of expectation that the objects of their mission can be accomplished on terms compatible with the safety, honour, or the essential interests of the nation.

The result cannot with justice be attributed to any want of moderation on the part of this government, or to any indisposition to forego secondary interests for the preservation of peace. Knowing it to be my duty, and believing it to be your wish, as well as that of the great body of the people, to avoid, by all reasonable concessions, any participation in the contentions of Europe, the powers vested in our envoys were commensurate with a liberal and pacific policy, and that high confidence which might justly be reposed in the abilities, patriotism, and integrity of the characters to whom the negotiation was committed. After a careful review of the whole subject, with the aid of all the information I have received, I can discern nothing which could have insured or contributed to success, that has been omitted on my part, and nothing further which can be attempted, consistently with maxims for which our country has contended, at every hazard, and which constitute the basis of our national sovereignty.

Under these circumstances, I cannot forbear to reiterate the recommendations which have been formerly made, and to exhort you to adopt with promptitude, decision,

and unanimity, such measures as the ample resources of the country afford, for the protection of our seafaring and commercial citizens; for the defence of any exposed portions of our territory; for replenishing our arsenals, establishing foundries and military manufactures; and to provide such efficient revenue as will be necessary to defray extraordinary expenses, and supply the deficiencies which may be occasioned by depredations on our commerce.

The present state of things is so essentially different from that in which instructions were given to collectors to restrain vessels of the United States from sailing in an armed condition, that the principle on which those orders were issued has ceased to exist. I therefore deem it proper to inform congress, that I no longer conceive myself justifiable in continuing them, unless in particular cases, where there may be reasonable ground of suspicion that such vessels are intended to be employed contrary to law.

In all your proceedings it will be important to manifest a zeal, vigour, and concert in defence of the national rights, proportioned to the danger with which they are threatened.

JOHN ADAMS.

United States,
19th March, 1798.

Saturday, December 8, 1798, the President of the United States met both Houses of Congress, in the Representatives' Chamber, and addressed them as follows :

Gentlemen of the Senate, and
Gentlemen of the House of
Representatives,

While with reverence and refection we contemplate the dispensations of Divine Providence, in the alarming and destructive pestilence with

with which several of our cities and towns have been visited, there is cause for gratitude and mutual congratulations that the malady has disappeared, and that we are again permitted to assemble in safety at the seat of government, for the discharge of our important duties. But when we reflect that this fatal disorder has, within a few years, made repeated ravages in some of our principal seaport towns, and with increased malignancy, and when we consider the magnitude of the evils arising from the interruption of public and private business, whereby the national interests are deeply affected, I think it my duty to invite the legislature of the union to examine the expediency of establishing suitable regulations in aid of the health-laws of the respective states; for these being formed on the idea that contagious sickness may be communicated through the channels of commerce, there seems to be a necessity that congress, who alone can regulate trade, should frame a system which, while it may tend to preserve the general health, may be compatible with the interests of commerce, and the safety of the revenue.

While we think on this calamity, and sympathize with the immediate sufferers, we have abundant reason to present to the Supreme Being our annual oblations of gratitude for a liberal participation in the ordinary blessings of his providence. To the usual subjects of gratitude, I cannot omit to add one of the first importance to our well-being and safety; I mean that spirit which has arisen in our country against the menaces and aggression of a foreign nation. A manly sense of national honour, dignity, and independence has appeared, which, if encouraged and invigorated by

every branch of the government, will enable us to stand, undimmed, the enterprises of a foreign power, and become the sure foundation of national prosperity and glory.

The course of the transactions in relation to the United States and France, which have come to my knowledge during your recess, will be made the subject of a future communication. That communication will confirm the ultimate failure of the measures which have been taken by the government of the United States towards an amicable adjustment of differences with that power. You will at the same time perceive that the French government appears solicitous to impress the opinion that it is averse to a rupture with this country, and that it has, in a qualified manner, declared itself willing to receive a minister from the United States for the purpose of restoring a good understanding. It is unfortunate for pretensions of this kind that they should be expressed in terms which may countenance the inadmissible pretension of a right to prescribe the qualifications which a minister from the United States should possess; and that, while France is asserting the existence of a disposition on her part to conciliate with integrity the differences which have arisen, the sincerity of a like disposition on the part of the United States, of which to many less distinctive proofs have been given, should even be indirectly questioned. It is also worthy of observation, that the decree of the directory alleged to be intended to restrain the depredations of French cruizers on our commerce, has not given, and cannot give any relief: it enjoins them to conform to all the laws of France relative to carrying and prizes, while these laws are themselves the sources

sources of the depredations, of which we have so long, so justly, and so fruitlessly complained.

The law of France enacted in January last, which subjects to capture and condemnation neutral vessels and their cargoes, if any portion of the latter are of British fabric or produce, although the entire property belong to neutrals, instead of being rescinded, has lately received a confirmation, by the failure of a proposition for its repeal. While this law, which is an unequivocal act of-war on the commerce of the nations it attacks, continues in force, those nations can see in the French government only a power regardless of their essential rights, of their independence and sovereignty; and if they possess the means, they can reconcile nothing with their interest and honour but a firm resistance.

Hitherto, therefore, nothing is discoverable in the conduct of France which ought to change or relax our measures of defence; on the contrary, to extend and invigorate them is our true policy. We have no reason to regret that these measures have been thus far adopted and pursued; and in proportion as we enlarge our view of the portentous and incalculable situation of Europe, we shall discover new and cogent motives for the full development of our energies and resources.

But in demonstrating by our conduct that we do not fear war, in the necessary protection of our rights and honour, we shall give no room to infer that we abandon the desire of peace. Ample preparation for war can alone ensure peace. It is peace that we have uniformly and perseveringly cultivated, and harmony between us and France may be restored at her option. But to send another minister, without

more determinate assurances that he would be received, would be an act of humiliation to which the United States ought not to submit: it must therefore be left with France, if she is indeed desirous of accommodation, to take the requisite steps. The United States will steadily observe the maxims by which they have hitherto been governed. They will respect the sacred rights of embassy; and with a sincere disposition on the part of France to desist from hostility, to make reparation for the injuries heretofore committed on our commerce, and to do justice in future, there will be no obstacle to the restoration of a friendly intercourse. In making to you this declaration, we give a pledge to France and the world that the executive authority of this country will attend to the humane and pacific policy which has invariably governed its proceedings, in conformity with the wishes of the different branches of the government and of the people of the United States. But considering the late manifestations of her policy towards foreign nations, I deem it a duty deliberately and solemnly to declare my opinion, that whether we negotiate with her or not, vigorous preparations for war will be alike indispensable. These alone will give to us an equal treaty, and insure its observance.

Among the measures of preparation which appear expedient, I take the liberty to recall your attention to the naval establishment. The beneficial effects of the small naval armament provided under the acts of the last session are known and acknowledged. Perhaps no country ever experienced more sudden and remarkable advantages from any measure of policy than we have derived from the arming for

our maritime protection and defence. We ought, without loss of time, to lay the foundation for an increase of our navy, to a size sufficient to guard our coast and protect our trade. Such a naval force, as it is doubtless in the power of the United States to create and maintain, would also afford to them the best means of general defence, by facilitating the safe transportation of troops and stores to every part of our extensive coast.

To accomplish this important object, a prudent foresight requires that systematical measures be adopted, for procuring at all times the requisite timber and other supplies. In what manner this shall be done I leave to your consideration.

I will now advert, gentlemen, to some matters of less moment, but proper to be communicated to the national legislature.

After the Spanish garrisons had evacuated the posts they occupied at the Natchez and Walnut Hills, the commissioner of the United States commenced his observations to ascertain the point near the Mississippi which terminated the northernmost point of the thirty-first degree of north latitude.—From thence he proceeded to run the boundary line between the United States and Spain. He was afterwards joined by the Spanish commissioner, where the work of the former was confined; and they proceeded together to the demarkation of the line. Recent information renders it probable that the Southern Indians, either instigated to oppose the demarkation, or jealous of the consequences of suffering white people to run a line over lands to which the Indian title had not been extinguished, have, ere this time, stopped the progress of the commissioners. And consider-

ing the mischiefs which may result from continuing the demarkation, in opposition to the will of the Indian tribes, the great expense attending it, and that the boundaries which the commissioners have actually established probably extend at least as far as the Indian title has been extinguished, it will perhaps become expedient and necessary to suspend further proceedings, by recalling our commissioner.

The commissioners appointed in pursuance of the fifth article of the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation between the United States and his Britannic majesty, to determine what river was truly intended under the name of the river St. Croix, mentioned in the treaty of peace, and forming a part of the boundary therein described, have finally decided that question. On the 25th of October, they made their declaration, that a river called Schoodiac, which falls into Passamaquoddy-bay, at its north-western quarter, was the true St. Croix, intended in the treaty of peace, as far as its great fork, where one of its streams comes from the westward, and the other from the northward; and that the latter stream is the continuation of the St. Croix to its source. This decision, it is understood, will preclude all contention among individual claimants, as it seems that the Schoodiac and its northern branch bounds the grants of lands which have been made by the respective adjoining governments.—A subordinate question, however, it has been suggested, still remains to be determined. Between the mouth of the St. Croix, as now settled, and what is usually called the Bay of Fundy, lie a number of valuable islands. The commissioners have not continued the boundary lines through any chan-
nel

nel of these islands; and unless the bay of Passamaquoddy be a part of the bay of Fundy, this further adjustment of boundary will be necessary. But it is apprehended that this will not be a matter of any difficulty.

Such progress has been made in the examination and decision of cases of captures and condemnations of American vessels, which were the subject of the seventh article of the treaty of amity, commerce and navigation, between the United States and Great Britain, that it is supposed the commissioners will be able to bring their business to a conclusion in August of the ensuing year.

The commissioners acting under the twenty-sixth article of the treaty between the United States and Spain have adjusted most of the claims of our citizens, for losses sustained in consequence of their vessels and cargoes having been taken by the subjects of his catholic majesty, during the late war between France and Spain.

Various circumstances have concurred to delay the execution of the law for augmenting the military establishment.—Among these is the delay of obtaining the full and information to direct the collection of officers. A bill will now be speedily introduced, it is expected that the necessary organization of the militia will proceed without obstacle or delay.

Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,

I have directed an estimate of the appropriations which will be necessary for the service of the ensuing year to be laid before you, accompanied with a view of the public receipts and expenditures to

a recent period. It will afford you satisfaction to infer the great extent and solidity of the public resources from the prosperous state of the finances, notwithstanding the unexampled embarrassments which have attended commerce. When you reflect on the conspicuous examples of patriotism and liberality which have been exhibited by our mercantile fellow-citizens, and how great a proportion of the public resources depends on their enterprise, you will naturally consider whether their convenience cannot be promoted and reconciled with the security of the revenue by a revision of the system by which the collection is at present regulated.

During your recess, measures have been steadily pursued for effecting the valuations and returns directed by the act of the last session, preliminary to the assessment and collection of a direct tax. No other delays or obstacles have been experienced, except such as were expected to arise from the great extent of our country, and the magnitude and novelty of the operation, and enough has been accomplished to assure the fulfilment of the views of the legislature.

Gentlemen of the Senate, and
Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,

I cannot close this address, without once more adverting to our political situation, and inculcating the essential importance of uniting in the maintenance of our dearest interests; and I trust, that by the temper and wisdom of your proceedings, and by a harmony of measures, we shall secure to our country that weight and respect to which it is so justly entitled.

JOHN ADAMS.

Public Acts passed in the Second Session of the Eighteenth Parliament of Great Britain.

December 30, 1797.

Act for raising a certain sum of money by loans on exchequer bills for the service of the year 1798.

For continuing the additional duties on distilleries in the highlands of Scotland.

For the regulation of his majesty's marine forces when on shore.

For regulating the exportation and carrying coastwise of wheat and rye, &c.

To continue the act relating to the admission of certain articles of merchandise in neutral ships, and for making regulations respecting the trade to and from the Cape of Good Hope.

Annual indemnity act for persons holding places and neglecting to qualify.

Act to enlarge the time for raising a militia in Scotland.

Jan. 12, 1798.

Act for granting to his majesty an aid and continuation for the prosecution of the war.

For allowing a certain proportion of the militia to enlist into his majesty's other forces.

Feb. 20.

Act to enable his majesty to order out a certain proportion of supplementary militia, and to provide for the necessary augmentation of men in the several companies of militia, by incorporating the supplementary militia therewith.

March 9.

Act for raising a further sum of money by loans or exchequer bills for the service of the year 1798.

The mutiny act.

For repealing the duties on gold and silver watch-cases.

1798.

To permit the importation of salt from Portugal in neutral ships.

For rectifying mistakes in the land-tax act.

April 5.

Act for reviving and continuing the duties on distilleries in the highlands of Scotland.

For providing for the defence of the realm, and for indemnifying persons who may suffer in their property by such measures as may be necessary for that purpose.

For disallowing the bounty on sail-cloth or canvas, the manufacture of Great Britain, exported to Ireland.

To continue the laws respecting the bounties on British and Irish linens, and for regulating the duties on tobacco-pipe clay, rape seed, Greenland fisheries, manufactures of flax and cotton, &c.

For reviving an act authorising his majesty to permit the exportation of wheat, &c. to Guernsey, Jersey, and Alderney.

To prevent, during the war, persons residing in Great Britain from advancing money or effects for the purchase, or on the credit of debts owing to the government of the United Provinces, without licence, and for extending the act to prevent traitorous correspondence with the said provinces.

For the regulation of quarantine, and goods removed from one ship to another.

For increasing the rates of subsistence to be paid by inn-keepers and others on quartering soldiers.

April 21.

Act to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as are suspected of conspiring against his person and government.

May 7.

Act for raising the sum of 17,000,000*l.* by way of annuities.

(R)

For

For enlarging the time of appealing in police causes.

For amending the act relative to the importation and exportation of certain goods in Jamaica, Granada, Dominica, and New Providence.

May 10.

For granting additional duties on salt.

For granting additional duties of excise on tea.

For repealing the duties on houses, windows and lights, inhabited houses, clocks and watches, and granting other duties on all these, excepting clocks and watches.

For repealing the duties upon male servants, carriages, &c. and granting other duties in lieu of the same.

To prevent commercial connexion with Switzerland, without licence.

To enable his majesty to call out a part of the militia of Scotland.

May 26.

Act for altering and amending the land-tax act, as far as relates to the qualifications of commissioners.

For more-effectually and speedily manning the navy.

June 1.

Act to continue the alien act.

To regulate the trial of causes, indictments, and other proceedings within the counties of certain cities and towns corporate.

For authorising the billeting of such troops of yeomanry cavalry as may be desirous of assembling for the purpose of being trained together, and for exempting from the payment of certain duties persons providing horses for the said yeomanry cavalry.

June 21.

Act for the redemption of the land tax.

For raising money by lottery.

For a duty on armorial bearings.

For regulating the duties on spices.

For enabling his majesty to accept the services of such militia as may offer to serve in Ireland.

For regulating the draw-backs and bounty on sugar.

To amend the laws of excise relating to coach-makers, auctioneers, beer, cyder, and certain stamps on hides and skins, draw-backs on wine and sweets.

To revive and continue the act which prohibits the importation of light silver coin of this realm from foreign countries into Great Britain and Ireland.

For allowing gold wares to be manufactured at a standard lower than is now allowed by law.

To prevent the exportation of base coin to the West Indies.

For defraying the charge of the pay and clothing of the militia of England.

To continue the act for the more effectual encouragement of the British fisheries.

For amending an act to prevent frauds in weighing and packing butter.

For amending an act for the due making of bread, and to regulate the assize thereof in the city and liberties, and within ten miles of the Royal Exchange.

For preventing the depasturing of forests, commons, and open fields, with sheep infected with the fever or murrum.

June 28.

Act for the better protection of the trade of the kingdom, and for granting additional duties of customs.

For raising an additional sum of money by loans or exchequer bills.

To

To authorise exchequer bills to be issued on the credit of the loan of 17 millions.

To enable the lords of the treasury to issue exchequer bills on the credit of the money raised by contribution.

For regulating the salt duties.

For the better execution of the act granting his majesty an aid and contribution for the prosecution of the war.

For extending the duties of vellum, parchment, and paper stamps, to all other materials.

For abolishing certain offices in the customs.

For preventing the mischiefs arising from the printing and publishing newspapers, and papers of a like nature, by persons not known, and for regulating the printing,

&c. of such papers in other respects.

To prevent his majesty's subjects from going to or remaining in France, or carrying on correspondence there.

To amend the act respecting aliens.

For regulating the shipping, and carrying of slaves in British vessels from Africa.

June 29.

For raising the sum of three millions by loans or exchequer bills.

For reviving and continuing the duties on distilleries in the highlands of Scotland, until April 10, 1799.

For ascertaining the duty payable on taxed carts.

For the regulation of the provincial cavalry.

BIOGRAPHICAL
ANECDOTES
AND
CHARACTERS.



BIOGRAPHICAL

ANECDOTES AND CHARACTERS.

VINDICATION of the CHARACTER of the EARL OF SHAFTESBURY.

[From the first Volume of the HISTORY of GREAT BRITAIN, from the REVOLUTION to the Accession of the House of HANOVER, by W. BELSHAM.]

“NO character has laboured under greater obloquy than that of the earl of Shaftesbury: yet he appears from the general tenor of his conduct to have deserved highly of his country; and those parts of it which are at all questionable have been most grossly and invidiously aggravated. It is the province of history to correct these errors, and to distribute with impartial justice the awards of praise or censure. Unfortunately for the memory of lord Shaftesbury, the most eloquent historian of the age, Mr. Hume, has in relation to him imbibed all the prejudices of preceding writers, in all their virulence and all their absurdity. His ideas of this celebrated nobleman are indeed evidently and almost wholly taken from bishop Burnet, low as the authority of that prelate stands with him upon most other occasions. But what Mr. Hume remarks of the duke of Albemarle is at least as true of lord Shaftesbury, ‘that bishop Burnet, agreeably to

‘his own factious spirit, treats this ‘nobleman with great malignity.’ Mr. Hume has even copied the ridiculous notion of the bishop, that lord Shaftesbury was addicted to judicial astrology. Lord Shaftesbury is known to have entertained a dislike and contempt of Burnet; and possessing a strong turn for humour, in order to avoid serious disquisition, he might possibly divert himself at times with the bishop’s curiosity and credulity.’ At the period of the Restoration, few persons stood higher in the esteem of the nation at large than sir Anthony Ashley Cooper; and though decidedly of opinion, in opposition to general Monk, that conditions ought to have been proposed for the security of public liberty, the king, nothing offended at his warmth of patriotism, even before his coronation created him a peer by the title of lord Ashley. And in the preamble to his patent, ‘the restoration is expressly said ‘to be ‘chiefly owing to him; and that af-

ter many endeavours to free the nation from the evils in which it was involved, he at length by his wisdom and councils, in concert with general Monk, delivered it from the servitude under which it had so long groaned.' He was also made governor of the isle of Wight, chancellor of the exchequer, and lord lieutenant of the county of Dorset: and he had, in conjunction with three other persons his intimate friends, a grant of the great estate of the Wallop family, which they afterwards nobly reconveyed to the original proprietors—the deeds of trust and conveyance being still extant.

“Notwithstanding the appointment of lord Clarendon as first minister, it is perfectly well ascertained, though too superficially passed over by Mr. Hume, that the council were greatly divided in political opinion; and that the harsh, bigoted, and arbitrary measures of that nobleman were invariably opposed by the lords Ashley, Robarts, Manchester, Holles, Annesley, secretary Morrice, &c. and even at times by the lord treasurer Southampton himself, the noble friend of Clarendon, and who was also, to the chagrin of the chancellor, not less intimately connected with lord Ashley. The earl of Clarendon was supported by the duke of York and the whole French interest, which on the other hand the chancellor espoused with strong and dangerous predilection; as the negotiations of the count d'Estades evince beyond all controversy. On the disgrace of this minister A.D. 1667, a new system was adopted; the French and high church influence seemed at an end; the triple alliance was concluded; mild and equitable measures were recommended from the throne to the

parliament; they were exhorted by the king, ‘seriously to think of some course to beget a better union and composure among his protestant subjects in matters of religion, whereby they might not only be induced to submit quietly to his government, but also cheerfully give their assistance to the support of it.’ And the horrible tyranny practised, under the sanction of Clarendon, in Scotland, was checked by a royal letter addressed by the king to the Scottish council, importing ‘that another way of proceeding was necessary for his service.’ This system continued for near three years, to the great advantage of the nation, and the proportionate indignation of the duke of York and of the whole French and popish faction; through whose fatal influence the king, ever wavering between the two parties, was at length induced to adopt new counsels and new measures. Agreeably, however, to his refined and cautious policy, he still retained and treated with great demonstrations of regard divers of the moderate and popular leaders, amongst whom by far the most distinguished was lord Ashley, who was well known by the duke of York to be inveterate in his aversion, and inflexible in his opposition, to him and his designs. Nor is it any just subject of reproach to lord Ashley, when such men as Holles, Annesley, and Robarts remained in office, that he did not immediately quit his connections with the court. Undoubtedly he flattered himself that, by a partial and external compliance with the measures of the sovereign, he and his friends might eventually recover their ascendancy. With this view he accepted, with the title of Shaftesbury, of the custody of the great seal; not surely with

with a design of promoting, but of counteracting, the projects of the cabal. He was entering, as he well knew, into a scene, not of political harmony, but of discord and confusion. Writing several months before to his friend sir William Morrice, late secretary of state, who had retired from public life, he says, 'The Lapland knots are untied, and we are in horrid storms.' It is true that Buckingham and Lauderdale, who had originally professed themselves inimical to the measures of the court, now yielded a passive and abject submission to it. But this was so far from being true, or even suspected of the earl of Shaftesbury, that he embraced a very early opportunity, after his appointment as chancellor, by an incident, trivial indeed in itself, but decisive in its effect, to demonstrate that he was irreconcilably at variance with the York and popish faction. The duke of York had been for several years accustomed to place himself, in the house of peers, on the right hand of the throne, upon the seat appropriated to the prince of Wales. But on the opening of the session in the spring of 1673, lord Shaftesbury, as chancellor, refused to proceed to business till his royal highness had removed himself to his proper place on the left hand of the throne. This threw the duke into a vehement passion, an infirmity to which he was extremely subject; and he refused compliance in the most provoking language, using, without regard to dignity or decorum, the opprobrious terms *villain* and *rascal*. To which lord Shaftesbury, with that command of temper and readiness of retort for which he was celebrated, calmly replied, 'I am obliged to your highness for not also styling me papist and coward.'

In conclusion the duke was compelled to submit, to his unspeakable chagrin and mortification.

"When the parliament had declared their disapprobation of the new system, upon which lord Shaftesbury doubtless depended for a change of measures, without effect; this nobleman thought it necessary to express publicly his concurrence with the sense of parliament, particularly in relation to the declaration of indulgence. In the same memorable debate, lord Clifford defended the court measures with the most intemperate vehemence. At the termination of it, the duke of York is said to have whispered to the king, 'What a rogue have you of a lord chancellor!' to which the king replied, 'What a fool have you of a lord treasurer!' But the king, if surprised, was not enraged at the conduct of Shaftesbury. On the contrary, anxious to preserve that sort of balance in his councils on which he secretly relied for refuge and safety, and placing the highest confidence in the talents of this nobleman, he immediately gave indications of a change of system, by cancelling the declaration, and giving his assent to the test act, which lord Shaftesbury supported in the house of lords, in opposition to Clifford, with such energy of argument and splendor of eloquence, that Andrew Marvell, so famous for his own political integrity, observes, 'Upon this occasion it was that the earl of Shaftesbury, though then lord chancellor of England, yet engaged so far in defence of that act and of the protestant religion, that in due time it cost him his place, and was the first moving cause of all those misadventures and obloquy which he since lies under.' In his excellent speech to the new lord

treasurer Danby, June 1673, on his taking the oaths before him in the court of chancery, he remarks, no doubt with a strong feeling of the difficulties of his own situation, 'that the address and means to attain great things are oftentimes very different from those that are necessary to maintain and establish a sure and long possession of them.' Lord Shaftesbury continued to be much consulted and caressed by the king during the whole interval which elapsed between the recess of parliament on the 29th March, and its next meeting, late in October. But though the king was prevailed upon to re-assemble the parliament at this juncture, adverse counsels again predominated in his ever fluctuating mind; and lord Shaftesbury was assured that he meant to dissolve the parliament, to renew his connections with France, to continue the Dutch war, and to permit the marriage of the duke of York with the princess of Modena. That nobleman then took his final resolution; and by the language which he used at the commencement of the session he shewed how little he was disposed to keep any measures with the court. After finishing the speech which he delivered *ad affectu* and by command, he expressed, contrary to the established custom, and to the indignation of the popish junto, 'his own hearty wishes and prayers that this session might equal, might exceed the honour of the last; that it might perfect what the last began, for the safety of the king and kingdom—that it might be for ever famous for having established upon a durable foundation our religion, laws, and properties.' Shortly after he told the king, 'that, though he was deeply sensible of his personal obligations he owed him, he was

'no longer able to serve him—that, had his advice prevailed, he would have engaged his life and fortune to have made him the most beloved and powerful prince in Christendom; and that, seeing him in the hands of a party so contrary to the interests he had been always contending for, he was satisfied the king's next step must be to send for the great seal.' The king seemed much affected, and promised never to forsake him or the protestant interest; but would not be dissuaded from his purpose of dissolving, or at least proroguing, the parliament after a session of a few days. Lord Shaftesbury predicted the dangerous consequences of this step, and the irreparable breach it must create between the king and the nation. But Charles was immovable; and instigated by the duke of York and the popish faction, he sent, as Shaftesbury was prepared to expect, secretary Coventry to demand the seal November 9th 1673. 'The same day,' as we are informed by Dr. Kennet, 'he was visited by prince Rupert and most of the peers and persons of quality about the town, who acknowledged that the nation had been obliged to him for the just discharge of the trust that had been reposed in him, and returned him their thanks.'

"But justice to the memory of lord Shaftesbury requires, that the confused and invidious statements of Mr. Hume should be more closely investigated, in order to manifest the utter incompetency of that celebrated historian to pass a judgment upon this nobleman's character and conduct. Mr. Hume affirms, after Burnet indeed, that sir Orlando Bridgeman was removed from his office for refusing to affix the great seal to the declaration of indulgence,

dulgence, and intimates that Shaftesbury was made chancellor for that very purpose; whereas sir Orlando Bridgeman continued in possession of the great seal eight months after the declaration was signed, sealed, and published, i. e. from the 15th of March to the 17th November 1672, and was then, as stated in the official notice, 'permitted to resign on account of his great age and infirmities.'

"Mr. Hume asserts, after Burnet, that lord Shaftesbury suggested to Clifford the infamous advice of shutting up the exchequer; although these statesmen were at this very time inveterate political adversaries. And there is extant a paper of objections, admirably penned, left by lord Shaftesbury with the king, against that violent and iniquitous measure; and also a letter of the same nobleman, in which, advertizing to this report, he styles it 'foolish as well as false.' If any man 'consider,' says he, 'the circumstance of the time when it was done, and that it was the prologue of making lord Clifford lord high treasurer, he cannot very justly suspect me of the counsel for that business, unless he thinks me at the same time out of my wits.' And the duke of Ormond, a man of honour, though of the Clarendon or York party, was heard to declare 'his wonder why people accused lord Ashley of giving that advice; for he himself was present when it was first moved by lord Clifford, and he heard lord Ashley passionately oppose it.'

"Mr. Hume tells us, that in the famous speech made by lord Shaftesbury as chancellor in the spring session of 1673, he enlarged on the topics suggested by the king, and added many extraordinary positions of his own. This is extremely in-

accurate. According to the fashion of the times, the speech, delivered by the chancellor in the king's name was considered as the king's speech, and was previously agreed upon in council as part of it. Lord Shaftesbury expressed in strong terms to his friend the famous Locke his uneasiness at the part which he was thus compelled to act, particularly noticing the obnoxious phrase 'délenda est Carthago.' And Mr. le Clerc remarks upon the occasion, 'that those (in Holland) who did not know the chancellor spoke only *ex officio*, conceived a bad opinion of him.' The earl of Clarendon had in the same manner vindicated, *ex officio* and in his capacity of chancellor, the first Dutch war, which he had previously and vehemently opposed in the cabinet, without any imputation upon his political integrity; and why should there be one standard of rectitude for Clarendon and another for Shaftesbury? The apology for both must be found in lord Shaftesbury's own weighty remark in his address to the earl of Danby.

"Mr. Hume's narrative evidently implies, if it does not expressly affirm, that lord Shaftesbury abandoned the court *because* the king, intimidated by the commons, had cancelled the declaration; whereas the king had as yet given no tokens of an intention to recede from the declaration; and lord Clifford had vindicated it in high and lofty terms, calling the vote of the house of commons 'monstrum horrendum, ingens!' when lord Shaftesbury arose, and said he must differ *toto cælo* from the noble lord who spoke last. And then followed his famous speech in condemnation of the declaration. The king, urged by the commons, unsupported by the lords, and alarmed at the defection of his most

popular minister, shortly after broke the seal with his own hand, March 7th; and the next day lord Shaftesbury, with the king's leave, reported it to the house of lords.

“Never,” says Mr. Hume, “was turn more sudden, or less calculated to save appearances. Immediately he entered into all the cabals of the country party, and discovered to them, perhaps magnified, the arbitrary designs of the court, in which he himself had borne so deep a share.” But this is mere historical romance. Lord Shaftesbury had never relinquished his connections with the country party, the leaders of which, Lyttelton, Powle, Russel, &c. were his particular friends;—and he was never accused or suspected by the patriots in the house of commons of any design inimical to the liberties or interests of his country. On the other hand, if the king conceived his conduct to be as base and treacherous as Mr. Hume represents it, how is his continuance in office for the space of nine months after this period to be accounted for? And why was he at last dismissed, as the high church historian Echard himself relates, with such unusual marks of respect and regard? But truth is always consistent with itself; and the fact beyond all possibility of rational denial is, that lord Shaftesbury had uniformly opposed the French system with all the weight of his influence and eloquence. By the force of his arguments the king had been often induced to ponder and to hesitate; and that he acted treacherously, is an assertion not only void of proof, but contrary to the whole tenor of evidence. In reality, lord Shaftesbury carried higher than almost any man his ideas of honour as a politician and statesman. Mr Hume himself allows,

but that is indeed at the distance of some pages, ‘that he maintained the character of never betraying those friends whom he deserted.’ In a letter written to the king some years subsequent to this period, he says, in reference to the early events of his life, ‘I never betrayed, as your majesty knows, the party or counsels I was of.’ He rather chose to lie under the imputation of advising the measure of shutting up the exchequer, than to reveal the king’s counsels confidentially entrusted to him. ‘I shall not deny,’ says the earl ‘but that I knew earlier of the counsel, and foresaw what necessarily it must produce perhaps sooner than other men; but I hope it could not be expected by any who do in the least know me, that I should have discovered the king’s secrets, or betrayed his business, whatever my thoughts were of it.’ And when, in avowed opposition to the court, several years afterwards he made some severe reflections on the then lord chancellor Nottingham, that nobleman arose in great heat, and ‘thanked God that, whatever his errors might be, he was not the man who had projected the second Dutch war, who had promulgated the declaration of indulgence, who had advised the shutting up of the exchequer.’ The earl of Shaftesbury with the utmost calmness observed, in answer to these implied charges, ‘that there were then in the house several lords who were in the secret of his majesty’s counsels at the period alluded to—he would accuse none, but he appealed to all whether he was the author or the adviser of the measures in question.’ A profound silence ensued; and lord Arlington going up to the king, who was himself present in the house, remarked to him the generosity of lord Shaftesbury, and

and the indiscretion of the chancellor. And upon this the king rebuked the chancellor for meddling with the secrets of the council in so public a place; and told him, 'he knew nothing of those matters.'

"So much for the charge of treachery.—Upon other similar accusations of the historian it is unnecessary to dwell. It, as Mr. Hume asserts, 'lord Shaftesbury had far-mounted all sense of shame, if he was not startled at enterprises the most hazardous, if he was a man of insatiable ambition;'—why did he not steadily persevere in the court system? had the opposition any thing better to offer him than the great seal of England?

"This nobleman is stigmatized by Mr. Hume, as at the same time under the dominion of furious and ungovernable passions, and practising the insidious arts of a deep and designing demagogue. But these opposite characteristics are equally remote from the truth. He had an extraordinary command of temper upon the most trying occasions; and his speeches, though bold and ardent, are not declamatory, but acute, sagacious, and argumentative. He equally disdained to disguise his own sentiments in compliance to the prince or to the people. 'I do not know,' said he upon a certain occasion (A. D. 1679) in the house of lords, 'how well what I have to say may be received; for I never study either to make my court or to be popular. I always speak what I am commanded by the dictates of the spirit within me.'

"In the high stations which he filled, his virtues, if we will give any credit to the testimonies of his contemporaries, were as conspicuous as his talents. His renown was extended far beyond the limits of his native country. On his ad-

vancement to the chancellorship, M. Cronstrom, a Swede of high distinction, who had been resident in England, wrote his congratulations. 'This preferment and dignity, my lord,' said he, 'was due long since to your high merits; and I do humbly assure your excellency, it is generally believed here, the interest of this and your nation will flourish under the wise conduct of such a renowned chief minister of state as you are.' Though not bred to the profession of a lawyer, none of his decrees in chancery were ever reversed: and amidst the violence and madness of party rage, Dryden himself, in his famous political satire of Absalom and Achitophel, could not refuse to pay a tribute of praise to the moral and judicial integrity of his character:

'In Israel's court ne'er sat an Achitophel
With more discerning eyes and hands
more clean:
Unbrib'd, untought, the wretched to redress,
Swift of dispatch, and easy of access.'

"Farther, Mr. Hume is pleased to inform us, 'that lord Shaftesbury was reckoned a deist:' although incontrovertible evidence remains, that this nobleman was a firm believer in christianity according to the most rational system of protestantism, for which he even declared, in a very memorable debate in the house of lords on the non-resistance bill (1675), his readiness to sacrifice his life. And upon this occasion king Charles, who was himself, according to his frequent practice, present in the house, declared 'that Shaftesbury knew more law than all his judges, and more divinity than all his bishops.'

"It would extend this digressive dis-

dissertation too far, to trace the misrepresentations of Mr. Hume relative to the conduct of lord Shaftesbury subsequent to his resignation of office, and public junction with the opposition, of which he was immediately acknowledged as the head. It must suffice to say, that the historian exhibits a character incongruous, incredible, impossible—a character from no one ‘vice exempt,’ yet the object of universal affection and veneration—not the veneration of the mass of the people merely, but of the best and wisest men of the age and country in which he lived—an Essex, an Holles, a Russell and a Sydney. And to the injurious reproaches of Mr. Hume may with infinitely preponderating advantage be opposed the discriminating applause of the celebrated Locke, founded on long and intimate knowledge; who says of this nobleman, ‘that in all the variety of changes of the last age he was never known to be either bought or frightened out of his public principles.’ And M. le Clerc tells us, ‘that to the end of his life, Mr. Locke recollected with the greatest pleasure the delight which he had found in the conversation of lord Shaftesbury; and when he spoke of his good qualities, it was not only with esteem, but with admiration.’

“When at length reduced to the necessity of taking refuge in Holland, he was received by the republic, which according to his enemies he had laboured to subvert, with the highest honours. On his arrival at Amsterdam, he was visited by several of the states and persons of distinction, one of whom smiling remarked, ‘My lord, nondum est deleta Carthago.’ They told him they were sensible his sufferings were for the protestant cause, that he had been their real friend, and that he had no enemies but who were theirs likewise. They assured him of their constant protection, and ordered his portrait to be hung up in their public room. On his death, which happened shortly after, they put themselves into mourning. Even the ship which conveyed his body to England, was adorned with streamers and scutcheons, and the whole apparatus was, by an express decree of the states, exempted from the payment of tolls, fees and customs. On the subsequent landing at Poole in Dorsetshire, it was met by a cavalcade of the principal gentlemen of the county, who attended the procession to his ancient seat of Winborne, where, after all his political conflicts, he reposed from his labours, and received a peaceful and honourable interment.”

SKETCH of the CHARACTER of QUEEN ANNE.

[From Dr. SOMERVILLE's History of GREAT BRITAIN during the Reign of QUEEN ANNE.]

“**M**ILDNESS, timidity, and anxiety were constitutional ingredients in the temper of this princess; and to their influence,

chiefly, we may ascribe most of the interesting occurrences in her government, and private life. While she relied implicitly on the counsels

als of her favourites, they were not restrained, by the fear of her resentment, from abusing indulged power, and violating the obligations of gratitude. Although she had imbibed all the keenness of a party spirit, yet she was deterred from pursuing its impulse by the first appearance of danger. She discarded the tories, who, from the confidence of her patronage at the beginning of her reign, were running into a course of measures, tending to the disunion of her subjects, and the danger of the protestant succession. Under the awe of a ruling junto, she gave her sanction to the continuance of the war, contrary to the bent of her own judgment and feelings, at a time when she had the opportunity of putting an end to it, upon terms more advantageous for Britain, than those which were finally obtained. Harassed at the close of her days by the jealousies of the whigs, and their urging securities for the protestant settlement, which did violence to her affections, she was prevented by the apprehension of personal danger, more than by principle or inclination, from taking any resolute steps for transferring the succession of the crown to her brother.

“ She had high notions of prerogative, which however produced no worse effect, than rendering her partial to its advocates.

The ingratitude of her first favourites rendered queen Anne more suspicious and guarded, after their dismissal; and a distrust of her ministers, and an unwillingness to yield to their advice in the last years of her reign, were one cause of their slowness in the prosecution of that system of measures, which was expected from the promises they had made to the tories, before they came into power. They

had gained the queen's favour by recommending to her the exercise of independent authority; and this made her afterwards the more positive in resisting any proposal which did not immediately meet with her approbation.

“ This princess has had the singular fate of being both praised, and condemned, for her conduct as a relation. By one party she has been represented as an amiable pattern of domestic tenderness; and by another, as an odious example of filial depravity. She was a kind and dutiful wife; and though encumbered with the cares of royalty, and depressed with bodily infirmities, she never omitted the minutest conjugal respect, and attended the sick-bed of her husband with sympathy and tenderness, almost unexampled in the higher ranks of life. She loved her children with the fondest affection, and paid the most assiduous attention to their health and education. But she has been accused of hard-heartedness in abandoning her father in the hour of his extremity.

“ While we ascribe what all have approved of, in the domestic behaviour of Anne, to a sense of duty, and her own native disposition, we ought not to overlook those peculiar circumstances in her situation, which afford some apology for the suspension of natural affection, though they do not amount to a justification of it. The habit of a blind deference to the advice of lord and lady Churchill, and a conscientious anxiety for the protestant religion, exposed to the extremity of danger, stifled the emotions of filial tenderness, in a moment of singular agitation and perplexity, and precipitated her into an action, which would have been inexcusable, if it had been the result of cool

cool deliberation, and originated from motives of interest and ambition.

“ In all the different stations she filled, this princess had the merit of observing the strictest rules of œconomy, in the management of her fortune; while she was not deficient in charity, and exceeded in bounty to her favourites.

“ In the discharge of religious duties, she was regular and exemplary. Her zeal for the prosperity of the church was attested by extending the means of public instructions; by augmenting, at her own expence, the livings of the poor clergy; and by expressing, on all occasions, a solicitude for the purity of the clerical character.

“ She possessed a considerable degree of taste for the fine arts; amused herself with music and painting; and delivered her public speeches with a melodious propriety, that charmed the ears of her audience.

“ The deceitfulness of grandeur, as a criterion of happiness, has often been inferred from the condition of royalty; and was remarkably verified in the life and reign of queen Anne. We behold a nation rising, under her auspices, to the summit of prosperity. While signal success crowned her military exertions abroad, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, science, and literature, advanced, with rapid steps, at home; every event, and every improvement, which contribute to the opulence, the power, and the

renown of a nation, distinguish the reign of queen Anne, as the most propitious and brilliant recorded in the annals of Britain. But when we follow this princess into retirement, and survey the incidents of her private life, what a contrasted scene discloses itself to view; and how much are we struck with the wide distinction between external grandeur, and personal felicity!

“ She survived a numerous family of children; the duke of Gloucester, destined by the act of settlement to succeed her, lived to the age of twelve; and exhibited early blossoms of every accomplishment that could elevate the hopes of a nation, and delight the heart of a parent.

“ The possession of a crown, held upon the condition of ratifying the degradation and exile of her own family, must have cost her many pang, which she durst not impart to the most confidential friends. While looked up to as the first potentate in Europe, and loaded with congratulations upon the success of her arms, she was a slave in her own house; and subjected to daily affronts and mortifications, from the insolence and usurpations of her servants. Emancipated, at length from her chains, she only entered upon a new scene of vexation and trial; and all her remaining days were embittered by the jealousy of her people, the turbulence of faction, and the contentions and outrage of a distracted cabinet.”

CHARACTER OF QUEEN CAROLINE.

[From the fourth Volume of the Works of HORATIO WALPOLE, Earl of Orford.]

“**Q**UEEN Caroline was said to have been very handsome at her marriage, soon after which she had the small-pox; but was little marked by it, and retained a most pleasing countenance. It was full of majesty or mildness as she pleased, and her penetrating eyes expressed whatever she had a mind they should. Her voice too was captivating, and her hands beautifully small, plump and graceful. Her understanding was uncommonly strong; and so was her resolution. From their earliest connection she had determined to govern the king, and desired to do so; for her submission to his will was unbounded, her sense much superior, and his honour and interest always took place of her own: so that her love of power, that was predominant, was dearly bought, and rarely ill-employed. She was ambitious too of fame; but shackled by her devotion to the king, she seldom could pursue that object. She wished to be a patroness of learned men; but George had no respect for them or their works; and her majesty's own taste was not very exquisite, nor did he allow her time to cultivate any studies. Her generosity would have displayed itself, for she valued money but as the instrument of her good purposes: but he stinted her alike in almost all her passions; and though she wished for nothing more than to be liberal, she bore the imputation of his avarice, as she did of others of his faults. Often when she had made prudent and proper promises of preferment, and

could not persuade the king to comply, she suffered the breach of word to fall on her, rather than reflect on him. Though his affection and confidence in her were implicit, he lived in dread of being supposed to be governed by her; and that silly parade was extended even to the most private moments of business with my father: whenever he entered, the queen rose, curtsied and retired, or offered to retire. Sometimes the king condescended to bid her stay—on both occasions she and sir Robert had previously settled the business to be discussed. Sometimes the king would quash the proposal in question; and yield after re-talking it over with her—but then he boasted to sir Robert that he himself had better considered it.

“One of the queen's delights was the improvement of the garden at Richmond; and the king believed she had paid for all with her own money—nor would he ever look at her intended plans, saying, he did not care how she flung away her own revenue. He little suspected the aids sir Robert furnished to her from the treasury. When she died, she was indebted twenty thousand pounds to the king.

“Her learning I have said was superficial; her knowledge of languages as little accurate. The king, with a bluff Westphalian accent, spoke English correctly. The queen's chief study was divinity; and she had rather weakened her faith than enlightened it. She was at least not orthodox; and her confidante lady Sundon, an absurd and pompous simpleton, swayed her countenance towards

towards the less-believing clergy. The queen however was so sincere at her death, that when archbishop Potter was to administer the sacrament to her, she declined taking it, very few persons being in the room. When the prelate retired, the courtiers in the anti-room crowded round him, crying, 'My lord, has the queen received?' His grace artfully eluded the question, only saying most devoutly, 'her majesty was in a heavenly disposition'—and the truth escaped the public.

"She suffered more unjustly by declining to see her son, the prince of Wales, to whom she sent her blessing and forgiveness—but conceiving the extreme distress it would lay on the king, should he thus be forced to forgive so impenitent a son, or to banish him again if once recalled, she heroically preferred a meritorious husband to a worthless child.

"The queen's greatest error was too high an opinion of her own address and art: she imagined that all who did not dare to contradict her, were imposed upon; and she had the additional weakness of thinking that she could play off many persons without being discovered. That mistaken humour, and at other times her hazarding very offensive truths, made her many enemies: and her duplicity in fomenting jealousies between the ministers, that each might be more dependent on herself, was no sound wisdom. It was the queen who blew into a flame the ill-blood between sir Robert Walpole and his brother-in-law lord Townshend. Yet though she disliked some of the cabinet, she never let her own prejudices disturb the king's affairs, provided the obnoxious paid no court to the mistresses. Lord Ilay was the only man, who, by managing Scotland for sir

Robert Walpole, was maintained by him in spite of his attachment to lady Suffolk.

"The queen's great secret was her own rupture, which till her last illness nobody knew but the king, her German nurse Mrs. Mailborne, and one other person. To prevent all suspicion, her majesty would frequently stand for some minutes in her shift talking to her ladies; and though labouring with so dangerous a complaint, she made it so invariable a rule never to refuse a desire of the king, that every morning at Richmond she walked several miles with him; and more than once, when she had the gout in her foot, she dipped her whole leg in cold water to be ready to attend him. The pain, her bulk, and the exercise, threw her into such fits of perspiration as vented the gout—but those exertions hastened the crisis of her distemper. It was great shrewdness in sir Robert Walpole, who, before her distemper broke out, discovered her secret. On my mother's death, who was of the queen's age, her majesty asked sir Robert many physical questions—but he remarked, that she oftenest reverted to a rupture, which had not been the illness of his wife. When he came home, he said to me, 'Now, Horace, I know by possession of what secret lady Sundon has preserved such an ascendant over the queen.' He was in the right. How lady Sundon had wormed herself into that mystery was never known. As sir Robert maintained his influence over the clergy by Gibson bishop of London, he often met with troublesome obstructions from lady Sundon, who espoused, as I have said, the heterodox clergy; and sir Robert could never shake her credit.

"Yet the queen was constant in her

her protection of sir Robert, and the day before she died gave a strong mark of her conviction that he was the firmest support the king had. As they two alone were standing by the queen's bed, she pathetically recommended, not the minister to the sovereign, but the master to the servant. Sir Robert was alarmed, and feared the recommendation would leave a fatal impression—but a short time after the king reading with sir Robert some intercepted letters from Germany, which said, that now the queen was gone sir Robert would have no protection: 'On the contrary,' said the king, 'you know she recommended *me* to you.' This marked the notice he had taken of the expression; and it was the only notice he ever took of it: nay, his majesty's grief was so excessive and so sincere, that his kindness to his minister seemed to increase for the queen's sake.

"The queen's dread of a rival was a feminine weakness: the behaviour of her eldest son was a real thorn. He early displayed his aversion to his mother, who perhaps assumed too much at first; yet it is certain that her good sense and the interest of her family would have prevented if possible the mutual dislike of the father and son, and their reciprocal contempt. As the opposition gave into all adulation towards the prince, his ill-poised head and vanity swallowed all their incense. He even early after his arrival had listened to a high act of disobedience. Money he soon wanted: old Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, ever proud and ever malignant, was persuaded to offer her favourite grand-daughter lady Diana Spencer, afterwards duchess

of Bedford, to the prince of Wales, with a fortune of an hundred thousand pounds. He accepted the proposal, and the day was fixed for their being secretly married at the duchess's lodge in the great park at Windsor. Sir Robert Walpole got intelligence of the project, prevented it, and the secret was buried in silence.

"Youth, folly, and indiscretion, the beauty of the young lady, and a large sum of ready money, might have offered something like a plea for so rash a marriage, had it taken place: but what could excuse, what indeed could provoke, the senseless and barbarous insult offered to the king and queen by Frederic's taking his wife out of the palace of Hampton-court in the middle of the night when she was in actual labour, and carrying her, at the imminent risk of the lives of her and the child, to the unaired palace and bed at St. James's? Had he no way of affronting his parents but by venturing to kill his wife and the heir of the crown? A baby that wounds itself to vex its nurse is not more void of reflection. The scene which commenced by unfeeling idiotism closed with paltry hypocrisy. The queen, on the first notice of her son's exploit, set out for St. James's to visit the princess by seven in the morning. The gracious prince, so far from attempting an apology, spoke not a word to his mother; but on her retreat gave her his hand, led her into the street to her coach—still dumb!—but a crowd being assembled at the gate, he kneeled down in the dirt, and humbly kissed her majesty's hand.—Her indignation must have shrunk into contempt!"

NOTICE of the CHARACTER and WRITINGS of PHILIP STANFORD,
EARL of CHESTERFIELD.

[From the first Volume of the same Works.]

FEW men have been born with a brighter flow of parts: few men have bestowed more cultivation on their natural endowments; and the world has seldom been more just in its admiration both of genuine and improved talents. A model yet more rarely beheld, was that of a prince of wits who employed more application on forming a successor, than to perpetuate his own renown—yet, though the peer in question not only laboured by daily precepts to educate his heir, but drew up for his use a code of institution, in which no secret of his doctrine was withheld, he was not only so unfortunate as to behold a total miscarriage of his lectures; but the system itself appeared so superficial, so trifling, and so illaudable, that mankind began to wonder at what they had admired in the preceptor, and to question whether the dictator of such tinsel injunctions had really possessed those brilliant qualifications which had so long maintained him unrivalled on the throne of wit and fashion. Still will the impartial examiner do justice, and distinguish between the legislator of that little fantastic aristocracy which calls itself *the great world*, and the intrinsic genius of a nobleman who was an ornament to his order, an elegant orator, an useful statesman, a perfect but no servile courtier, and an author whose writings, when separated from his impertinent institutes of education, deserve, for the delicacy of their wit and Horatian irony, to be ranged with the purest classics of the courts

of Augustus and Louis quatorze. His papers in *Common Sense* and *The World* might have given jealousy to the sensitive Addison; and though they do not rival that original writer's fund of natural humour, they must be allowed to touch with consummate knowledge the affected manners of high life. They are short scenes of genteel comedy, which, when perfect, is the most rare of all productions.

His papers in recommendation of Johnson's dictionary were models of that polished elegance which the pedagogue was pretending to ascertain, and which his own style was always heaving to overload with tautology and the most barbarous confusion of tongues. The friendly patronage was returned with ungrateful rudeness by the proud pedant; and men smiled without being surprised, at seeing bear worry his dancing-master.

Even lord Chesterfield's poetical trifles, of which a few specimens remain in some songs and epigrams, were marked by his idolized graces, and with his acknowledged wit. His speeches courted the former, and the latter never forsook him to his latest hours. His entrance into the world was announced by his bon-mots, and his closing lips dropped repartees that sparkled with his juvenile fire.

Such native parts deserved higher application. Lord Chesterfield took no less pains to be the phoenix of fine gentlemen, than Tully did to qualify himself for shining as the first orator, magistrate, and philosopher of Rome

Both

Both succeeded: Tully immortalized his name; lord Chesterfield's reign lasted a little longer than that of a fashionable beauty. His son, like Cromwell's, was content to return to the plough, without authority, and without fame.

"Besides his works collected and published by doctor Maty, his lordship had begun 'Memoirs of his own Time.'—How far he proceeded on such a work I cannot say;

nor whether farther than a few characters of some eminent persons, which have since been printed, and which are no shining proof that lord Chesterfield was an excellent historic painter. From his private familiar letters one should expect much entertainment, if most of those published by Maty did not damp such hopes. Some few at the end of his correspondence with his son justly deserve admiration."

NOTICE OF ROBERT LORD CLIVE.

[From the same Volume.]

"THIS lord, who was styled by policy a heaven-born hero, and whom policy alone would canonize, would never have been an author, if he could have silenced opposition as completely as he removed opponents in India. Yet was he qualified, like Cæsar, either to write or conquer. Still one, who neither reverences Roman usurpations in Gaul, nor Spanish massacres in Mexico, will never allow his pen to applaud the invasions and depredations of his countrymen in India. Suffered to traffic as merchants, we have butchered, starved, plundered and enslaved, the subjects and pro-

vinces of lawful princes; and all the imported diamonds of the east cannot out-blaze the crimson that ought to stain our cheeks, or the indignation that ought to have fired them, when more recent Machiavels have called for applause on their devastations. But as Cæsar's conquests lifted the yoke on the neck of Rome, Indian gold has undermined the English constitution; for, when heaven inflicts heroes on mankind, it generally accompanies them with their consequences, the loss of liberty—to the vanquished, certainly; to the victorious, often!"

The LIFE of Mr. THOMAS BAKER, the celebrated ANTIQUARY.

[Extracted from the second Volume of the same Works.]

"THOMAS Baker, a younger son of sir George Baker of Crooke-hall Lancaster in the county of Durham, was born September 1798.

14, 1656. With his elder brother George he was admitted pensioner of St. John's college in Cambridge June 13, 1674; and Thomas was
B received

received as scholar of the same college in November 1676.; and as perpetual fellow of the same society in March 1680. In the books of the college is mention of a Thomas Baker as elected librarian in 1699, and Hebrew reader in 1700: but as our Mr. Thomas Baker was then fellow only by connivance, and was actually deprived of his fellowship in 1717; the gentleman who communicated this intelligence reasonably concludes that the society did not heap additional favours on one whom they only tolerated amongst them: and he confirms this conjecture by observing, that, on Mr. Baker's expulsion, he is styled senior Baker for distinction.

"At what age Mr. Baker dedicated himself to the church, does not appear. That it was the profession he voluntarily embraced, cannot be doubted, from the unvaried colour of his life and studies, and from his having adhered to a monastic life, when divested of the privilege of exercising his ministry. Born under a tempest of contending sects, his reason no sooner began to develop itself than he heard nothing but the conflict of the like warring elements. The jealousy of popery, that had alarmed the staunchest protestants under a devout king, blazed with reason under his profligate son, who was influenced by a brother, whose understanding he despised, in the point that most demands the exercise of one's own judgment. The controversy was managed, at least on the side of the church of England, with the highest abilities; yet when Mr. Baker consecrated his services to that church, though it was the predominant, it neither enjoyed the partiality of the crown, nor promised a life of ease and tranquillity, at least to one who fathomed every duty,

nor dispensed with himself in the performance of the most difficult. This is not mere conjecture, nor drawn from the tenor of his delicate conscience. Mr. Baker early and boldly bore testimony to his religious sentiments. Here are the proofs:

"In the library of St. John's college is a collection of the London gazettes. That of July 5, 1688, contains those emanations of loyalty that attend all princes in possession (and had not been wanting to Richard Cromwell), and an account of the rejoicings made on the birth of king James's supposed son, in particular of those celebrated at Durham, under the auspices of bishop Crewe, to whom Mr. Baker seems to have been chaplain. On the margin of that gazette Mr. Baker has written these words: 'This account was drawn up by the bishop, as his secretary Mr. Peters told me. I was present at the solemnity. If I did not rejoice as I ought, pardon me, O God, that sin!'

"What delicacy of conscience! The good man trembled for his religion, yet doubted whether the Omnipotent did not expect that he should exult in whatever good luck befell his vicegerent—But, of what religion were they who invented such principles? If the ruler of the universe visits a sinful world with pestilence, can he require us to rejoice at the calamity? In other words, can almighty wisdom exact our feeling contradictory sensations? Though a pious person says he rejoices, does he rejoice? Such doctors enjoin lip-worship, as if the all-feeling could be imposed on by a formulary of words. This is absurd casuistry, devised by bigots, and recommended by knaves. Nor could Mr. Baker's good sense have swallowed such nonsense, if the ten-

tenderness of his piety had not been alarmed by what he had been told was his duty. He thought it safer to trust to his conscience than his judgment. Nor had passive obedience ever a sincerer victim, or did good sense ever lose a worthier son misled by authority. Bishop Crewe proved less sincere, or less firm.

"In the same gazette is an account from Whitehall of July 6, of the removal of the judges, (a clear indication that the king was acting against law) and of the alteration of those appointed to hold the summer assizes on the northern circuit. There too Mr. Baker has attested his own conduct, with the same dubitation whether he had not transgressed his duty in obeying the dictates of his conscience. It is still more remarkable, that he wept his want of devotion to his worldly master after king James was divested of power. There can be no doubt but such contrition would not have been felt, if king James had been successful. Mr. Baker's scruples never led him to sacrifice his religion to his prince, while in possession. Had James triumphed, we may justly conclude that Mr. Baker would have laid down his life for his faith. The relinquishment of fortune is nearer to the stake, than to a time-serving compliance. It was generous to bewail his own want of blind zeal for an unfortunate prince. He would have seen James's folly in its true light, if reduced to the option of emolument or the cross. The death of Charles I. has won him many hearts, that would have abhorred his tyranny if it had been successful.

"At Durham," says Mr. Baker, "I preached before the judges (three of the ecclesiastical commissioners

'being then present). I could easily observe the sermon gave offence (and indeed justly); and yet it passed without censure. I have since burnt it, as I did the rest.'

"Here good nature pauses to lament those confessors who resisted king James, and thought it their duty to become victims to their oaths. Indignation takes their part, and condemns oaths that are not mutual, and that are supposed to bind but one side. What foundation can there be for subjects devoting themselves to their prince, if he is bound by no reciprocal ties? If they are his chattels, his herd, his property, oaths are frivolous. He has power to punish them if they revolt, whether they are sworn to him or not. To swear to a king, without reciprocity from him, is subjecting our souls to him as well as our bodies. We are to be damned to all eternity if he makes his tyranny intolerable. Proclaim him God at once. God alone can be trusted with power over our minds: God alone can judge how much we can endure. Shall one of ourselves be emperor of the mind?—No, said Mr. Baker—yet repented that he had said so!—And we must admire the beauty of that integrity, which, instead of recurring to the refinements of casuistry to discover a salvo that would console it, bowed to arguments against itself, and distrusted its own reason more than its scruples.

"A contest so nice ought to make us, who stand at a distance, view the combatants with impartiality. Sancroft, who preferred his oath to his mitre, and Tillotson, who, in accepting it, adhered to the principles that he had avowed when persecution, not emolument, was the probable consequence of

his resistance, deserve to be esteemed honest men. James, who had violated his coronation oath, and yet expected that the ministers of religion should prefer their oaths to their religion, was guilty, if either Sancroft or Tillotson was in the wrong. The chief magistrate of any country, who is a rock of offence to the consciences of his subjects, deserves no commiseration. The profusion of advantages that are showered on kings to enforce the authority of magistracy, and to reward them for their superintendency of the whole community, enhances their guilt when they set an example of trampling on the laws which it is both their duty and their interest to preserve inviolate—and none but womanish minds will pity them, when they provoke their subjects to throw off allegiance, and incur the penalty of their crimes. The blindest bigot to the memory of Charles I. or James II. cannot deny, that both were the original aggressors. Had they both acted conformably to the constitution and laws, no man living can think that any part of the nation would have revolted. Did not ship-money and disuse of parliaments precede the rebellion, or were the causes of it? Did not James in the dawn of his reign hoist the banner of popery? Had not Sancroft and the six bishops been imprisoned for withstanding the dispensing power? If Sancroft was a sincere protestant, could he believe that his oath bound him to an idolatrous king, who had perjured himself by promoting idolatry? Might not Tillotson think that the king's perjury absolved his subjects from their oaths? Sancroft, I verily believe, was so weak as to be of the contrary opinion. He was deluded by the conduct of the primitive Chris-

tians, who submitted to the higher powers—But how wide was the difference! The pagan emperors of Rome had never sworn to maintain pure christianity—and the early christians themselves (if not the first, who had no opportunity of resistance) were not very passive, as soon as their numbers enabled them to use temporal weapons for the defence of their religion. Mr. Baker, of a more enlightened understanding than Sancroft's, yet acted the same disinterested part. But what severe reflections does the purity of their conduct call forth on a set of men who in the same cause acted and have acted the counterpart to those confessors!—I mean those Jacobites, who did take the oaths to king William and the succeeding princes down to the present reign, and yet constantly promoted the interests of a family they had so solemnly abjured! Let their conduct be tried by the standard of their own Sancroft, and let us hear by what casuistry they will be absolved from guilt and contempt!

“ The three ecclesiastic commissioners alluded to by Mr. Baker in his preceding note, were, probably, Crewe, bishop of Durham, and two of the new judges.

“ Those commissioners ordered an account to be returned to them of the names of all such of the clergy as refused to read his majesty's declaration of April 7, for liberty of conscience.

“ On the margin of the gazette for August 23, 1688, Mr. Baker has written this note: ‘ I was ordered by the bishop of Durham (a commissioner) to attend the archdeacon, Dr. Granville, for the execution of this order; which I readily did, knowing it to be enjoined me as a penance for my former disobedience, having refused

‘fused to read the declaration in his chapel, and forbid my curate to read it at my living. The good man’s answer was, that he would obey the king and the bishop, and the first man he returned should be the archdeacon, his curates not having read it in his absence; but had he been present, he would have read it himself. Not long after he and I were both of us deprived for disobedience of another kind, and the commanding bishop saved himself by his usual compliance.’

“Here Mr. Baker’s understanding and conscience appear in their full lustre. He saw it was not his duty to obey the king against his religion. He disobeyed. Yet when James had deservedly lost his crown, Mr. Baker sacrificed his fortune rather than take an oath to another. Dr. Denis Granville, dean and archdeacon of Durham, acted the same part, though with less merit, having been ready to humour the king in his injunctions. His bishopric was the religion of bishop Crewe, and he was ready for the toleration of popery or for suppression of it, according to the humour of the king on the throne. But when bishops sit so loose to both religions, one may be very sure they are not sincere in either, but would be Mahometans if the archiepiscopal mitre were turned into a turban. They have not been so pliable towards any reformed church of christians who do not admit of an opulent clergy. The whole tenour and spirit of the gospel inculcate poverty, charity, and self-denial. It is not so easy to prove from the new testament that archbishoprics and bishoprics, in the modern sense, are of divine institution. St. Peter and St. Paul would have stared at being saluted by the titles of your grace and your lordship; and on what

text are founded deaneries, prebends, chapters, and ecclesiastical courts, those popish excrescencies of a simple religion, we are yet to seek. Translations from one see to another are no doubt authorised by the same chapter of one of the four evangelists, though I know not of which, wherein prelates are enjoined to vote always with the prime minister for the time being; as the Swiss fight for the prince, whatever his religion is, who takes them into his pay.

“These notes on the gazette that I have cited, and the firmness of his subsequent conduct, prove that Mr. Baker was prepared to meet every storm that could fall on him in the cause of his religion. It was the stamp of a mind still more disinterested, that he was not equally ready to triumph with his religion, when it was victorious. He had not foreseen the fall of the tyrant, nor had considered royalty on the great scale of the interests of the public, and as an office only held by the possessor for the benefit of the people. The sufferings of Charles I. whose crimes were not of the magnitude of his son’s, had raised a spirit of enthusiasm in his partisans, and conjured up in their minds a prophane idolatry of kings, that was inconsistent both with true religion and common sense; and had been extended even to genealogic succession—as if being born of a certain race could entitle any family to a right of violating with impunity all laws, both divine and human. Mr. Baker had unhappily imbibed those prejudices; but, as his virtue corrected the errors of his understanding, himself was the only person whom he attempted to sacrifice to his mistaken loyalty. He was never suspected of caballing against the new established govern-

ment; and, while his own order and both universities, Oxford in particular, swarmed with factious priests, and engendered some whose zeal dipped them even in plots of assassination against the deliverer of the protestant religion, the meek Mr. Baker was content with the cross he had embraced, and never profaned his piety by rebellious intrigues. He even lived in charity, in communion, in friendship with churchmen of the most opposite principles. He assisted the studies and publications of archbishop Wake and bishop Kennet: and while turbulent incendiaries and Jacobite priests, who had taken the oaths to king William, poured deluges of filth and malevolence on the head of bishop Burnet, for having, like an honest man, ventured his life in the cause of his religion, and for having (his greatest crime) recorded the crimes of the Stuarts and their ministers and creatures, Mr. Baker did justice to the character of the man, and contributed to his history of the reformation of that church to which they both adhered, and which other protestant divines have endeavoured to subject again to a Roman catholic sovereign. Mr. Baker's conduct is the most severe answer to all such libellers and renegades.

“ That prejudice and obstinacy were not the sole arbiters of this good man's conscience, appeared from his being disposed to take the oaths to the new government, as soon as his old master king James was no more; whose tampering, in concert with that other royal saint, Louis XIV. in the assassination plot, and from which their memories will never be washed, had shaken the allegiance of many of his warmest devotees. But the imposition of an oath of abjuration dispelled

all thoughts in Mr. Baker of conformity: perhaps not from mere tenderness. He was too conscientious to take an oath to king William with any intention of transgressing it, like so many others, on a good opportunity; but having fallen into such difficulties by his religious observance of the oath he had taken, he was probably averse to entangling himself in more snares. And since the experience of several reigns has demonstrated how little binding oaths are but to the most virtuous of mankind, it were to be wished that they were administered with great circumspection. The perjuries at the custom-house, and in the case of elections, call for the abrogation of a sacrament that has lost all sanctity.

“ Mr. Baker retained his fellowship to the death of queen Anne, by the connivance of Dr. Jenkin the master, who at first had been himself a non-juror, but on taking the oaths had been elected head of the college. The accession of a new family of foreigners, who were not lineal heirs, and whose relation to the crown was too remote not to offend the prejudices of the vulgar, incited the vigilance of government to be strict in imposing the oath of fidelity. It was tendered to and refused by Mr. Baker. In his life in the *Biographia Britannica*, it is asserted, that he had hoped to continue to be screened by the master, and was offended at that indulgence being withdrawn; but the proof of that assertion is very inadequate to the inference.”

“ It is indeed asserted in the new edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, that Mr. Prior ceded to Mr. Baker the profits of his fellowship after his expulsion. If he did, the generous act was worthy of so honest and amiable a man as Mr. Prior; and

and it is not to detract from the generosity of one whose soul glowed with friendship and good-nature, and whose poetry owed not one of its graceful and genteel beauties to asperity, that I am obliged, on the remarks of the gentleman to whom this tract is chiefly indebted, to doubt of the reality of the gift. Though Mr. Baker could have enjoyed the benefit of the cession but very few years, he being ejected in 1717, and Mr. Prior dying in 1721; the generosity was complete, Mr. Prior not being able to cede his fellowship but while he enjoyed it. But on the authority above mentioned, I must question the fact; not from the want of humanity in Mr. Prior, but from his own circumstances, which could ill allow him to be so munificent."

"There is still less foundation for believing what is asserted in a marginal note in the first edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, p. 3726, that bishop Burnet allowed Mr. Baker an annuity. That they had literary connections is well known, probably commenced by Mr. Baker's sending the prelate many corrections of his *History of the Reformation*, which his lordship mentions with great gratitude and esteem, in the introduction to his third volume, where he has also printed Mr. Baker's observations. But the terms employed by the bishop are far from implying either familiarity or patronage; and as that was his last publication, being dedicated to George I. and as Burnet died in March 1715, near two years before Mr. Baker lost his fellowship, it is not probable that the bishop would have selected a non-juror for the object of his bounty, and less probable that Mr. Baker would have accepted it; he, who, when reduced to much narrower

circumstances, would not stoop to accept emoluments from the head of the triumphant church. Having assisted archbishop Wake in his work on the state of the church, his grace offered to Mr. Baker the nomination of any friend he would recommend to a living of 200l. a year, since he could not accept it himself. This generous gratitude Mr. Baker declined, and desired that his grace's favour might be confined to a present of the book in question. Nor can it easily be believed, that a man who never boasted of the distinctions he received, would have been silent on obligations. Mr. Baker certainly did receive pecuniary presents from Edward Harley the second earl of Oxford, and it is said they were an annuity of 60l. a year. Mr. Baker ever gratefully acknowledged the patronage of the noble Mæcenas, to whose house at Wimple he was always a welcome guest. More of their connection will appear, when we come to speak of the disposition of Mr. Baker's works.

"Excluded from the church, in whose service he had intended to exert his activity and pious labours, he was reduced to the exercise of his private virtues, and at liberty, if ever man was, to indulge his passion for study. It was the occupation of the rest of his life; and from the æra of his deprivation there is no trace of events in his long course but such as were literary. I shall therefore confine what I have farther to say of Mr. Baker to the chapter of his writings; and even check the pleasure I have in doing justice to his virtues, unless where they break out indirectly from circumstances that attended his own compositions, or the communications with which he assisted other authors.

“ Mr. Baker’s first publication was his *Reflections on Learning*, published in octavo, 1699, without his name. It is a work full of learning, wit, and ingenuity, and deservedly raised the author’s reputation; yet as much as I admire it, it would be the partiality of a biographer to his hero, not to allow that it has considerable defects. The editors of the new *Biographia* have justly reprehended Mr. Baker’s style, which is far from possessing modern elegance, and from being formed by a good ear. It is not so universally replete with coarse and vulgar language, as the styles of Dr. Echard, Dr. Bentley, and Dr. Wootton; men whom however I rather mention with Mr. Baker as luminaries of science and wit, than to censure the harshness and want of purity in their diction. But Mr. Baker’s book had a more considerable fault than the defect of elegance. It wanted a logical conclusion. The title of his work explains his scope. ‘*Reflections upon Learning; wherein is shewn the insufficiency thereof in its several particulars, in order to evince the usefulness and necessity of Revelation.*’

“ The fathers who decried human learning in order to enforce the one thing necessary, religion, argued consequentially, supposing God implanted a propensity to arts and sciences in the heart of man, and yet did not intend that he should make any use of the powers bestowed. The fathers too, who held that absurd doctrine, had at least the excuse of apprehending that the end of the world was at hand. But seventeen hundred years have pretty well exploded that vision; and therefore we must be the more surprised to hear an ingenious man argue like enthusiasts of the second or third century.

“ That human industry has not

perfected, probably cannot perfect, every science, is a self-evident truth, but perhaps not a melancholy one. The investigation is delightful; and so exquisite is the goodness of the creator, that he has taught us to strike out numerous enjoyments even from imperfect knowledge. Where he has not given us specifics, he has bestowed succedaneums. If the pyramids were raised by slender skill in mechanics, though by great labour, they might be erected in less time now, yet would not last longer. The natives of Otaheité could carve without iron. A Grecian or Roman could execute works in cameo or intaglia without microscopic glasses, which we cannot imitate with superior advantages. But how does revelation supply the defects of knowledge, except in what it was given to reveal? I will mention a few of Mr. Baker’s topics, to which revelation seems a very inadequate supplement. In fact, except morality, I see not what revelation was intended to improve, has improved, or could improve. If it even has not improved morality, it is not the fault of revelation, but of those to whom it has been dispensed.”

“ Mr. Baker’s *Reflections on Learning* drew him into a controversy with Le Clerc, a dispute detailed in the *Biographia*, and which therefore I shall not repeat. It seems to have been the only moment of his life in which he did not preserve his temperate politeness, but exchanged it, yet only to a moderate degree, for that boisterous indelicacy of the literati of the preceding age, the Scaligers, Scioppiuses, and Salmasiuses, who hurled Latin ordures at the heads of their foes, and were proud of being able to be as scurrilous as the cobblers of old Rome and in the same terms.

“ May I be allowed to think that

that a fault which a man commits but once in a long life, is a beauty in his character; at least a foil, that heightens the rest of his virtues, and implies a greater amendment? In Mr. Baker it was redeemed by communications even to men of the most opposite principles. He knew to distinguish between the members of the republic of letters, and the adherents to a party in the state from which he dissented.

“ His next, and sole other, publication was a new edition of bishop Fisher’s funeral sermon on Margaret countess of Richmond and Derby; to which he added an account of her charities, foundations, &c.

“ The rest of his life was passed in the study of antiquity and in laborious collections of antique papers, great numbers of which he transcribed with his own hand, relating to our transactions both in the church and the state. From these stores, and his own indefatigable reading, he assisted many men of congenial studies in their several publications; and he was supposed to have been engaged for many years in compiling for his own university a work similar to Wood’s *Athenæ Oxonienses*: but there is no sufficient warrant for believing that he ever meditated such a digestion; and he certainly left nothing beyond materials for it.

“ Of his own college he actually undertook and executed a very valuable history; valuable still less for its accuracy and fidelity, than for its author’s singular impartiality. It is the chef-d’œuvre of temper in a martyr. It is brightened too with rays of judgment and good sense that shine unexpectedly from such brute matter; and though too dry to charm without the walls of its own college, it is so honourable both to the society and the author, that it is rather surprising a few co-

pies at least have not been preserved by the press; at least it would be a model to writers of that class, if the scribblers of antiquities could be taught to have taste, and to abandon bigotry and prejudice, and useless trifles, which have no value but that of existence.

“ The authors and editors his cotemporaries, whose studies were congenial with Mr. Baker’s, were gratefully fond of acknowledging their obligations to him, and of bearing testimony to his exemplary virtues. Mr. Brown Willis, Dr. Knight in his *Life of Erasmus*, Dr. Richardson in his edition of *Godwin De Præsulibus Angliæ*, Professor Ward in his *History of Gresham College*, Dr. Fiddes in his *Life of Wolsey*, and Hearne in several of his publications, all hold the same language on the communicative humanity and other excellencies of this primitive confessor.

“ More might be said on this head; but where genuine virtues shine so conspicuously by their own light, they want no adventitious rays. The preceding age had leaned so heavily on those collateral crutches, compliments from cotemporaries, that panegyrics of that kind sunk into total disuse. Mr. Pope’s juvenile works were I think the last so gilded, and his own effulgence made all those lesser stars

Hide their diminish’d heads.

“ In those indefatigable researches, in collections, in benevolent and friendly communications, and in the exercise of every duty and of every charity within the limits of his contracted fortune, Mr. Baker reached the eighty-fourth year of his age, when his life terminated as mildly, though suddenly, as it had been passed. On Saturday the 28th of June, 1740, in the afternoon, he was found lying upon the

the floor of his chamber ; his face so much convulsed that his speech was almost inarticulate ; a stupor hung on his senses, and one side was dead. At times he seemed to disregard what was passing around him ; at others he knew those present, and recommended himself to their prayers for an easy death ; expressing perfect resignation, as he perceived, he said, that his time was come, and thanking his friends for their kind offices. In this easy state of transition he lasted till the following Wednesday ; and being almost incapable of swallowing, he took little nourishment and less of medicine, accepting with uneasiness any assistance, but to change his linen, as he deemed all remedy impossible, and but a delay of his departure ; so that his friends forbore to disturb him more than was requisite to mark that there was no neglect.

“ This was the end he had often wished, preceded by a short illness, and accompanied by little or no pain. He was interred in the antichapel of St. John’s college with every sincere mark of respect and ceremony from the society, and an oration in his praise was pronounced over his grave by one of the fellows.

“ The last act of his life, his will, was consonant to the series of his

actions, and breathes the same devotion, humility, charity, friendship, and candour, that had adorned each period. One particularity of his last testament is too memorable not to be singled from the rest of his legacies. One of them is to Dr. Conyers Middleton, whose principles in church and state were not only very different from those of Mr. Baker, but the doctor himself had lost the friendship of their common patron, the earl of Oxford, by being converted from the narrow and bigoted creed of those who adhered to the monkish notions of royal and ecclesiastic despotism, and who did not, like Mr. Baker, allow any toleration, nor forgive Middleton for seeing with his own eyes. Mr. Baker certainly intended no reproach to a sect, which he never quitted but the candour of his conduct is the severest censure on every party that is intolerant. They alone who abhor toleration deserve little. They are enemies to the freedom of religion, over which God alone can have any right of empire. Mr. Baker lived and died in charity with all mankind, and was perhaps the sole instance of a man who bequeathed his worldly goods to a society that ejected him, and to the ministers of a church in which he had lost preferment.”

PERSON, DISPOSITION, MANNERS, &c. of SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

[From the first Volume of Mr. COXE’s MEMOIRS of the LIFE and ADMINISTRATION of Sir ROBERT WALPOLE, Earl of Orford.]

“ **S**IR Robert Walpole was tall and well-proportioned, and in his youth and opening manhood so comely, that at the time of his marriage he and his wife were

called the handsome couple, and among the knights who walked in procession at the installation of the garter, in 1725, he was, next to the duke of Grafton and lord Townshend

hend, most distinguished for his appearance. As he advanced in years he became extremely corpulent and unwieldy. His countenance does not seem to have been remarkable for strong traits. The features were regular; when he spoke, and particularly when he smiled, his physiognomy was pleasing, benign, and enlightened: his eye was full of spirit and fire, and his brow prominent and manly.

"His style of dress was usually plain and simple; a circumstance which was not overlooked by the Craftsman, who thus holds him up to ridicule: 'There entered a man dressed in a plain habit, with a purse of gold in his hand. He threw himself forward into the room in a bluff ruffianly manner, a smile, or rather a sneer upon his countenance.' His address was so frank and open, his conversation so pleasing, and his manner so fascinating, that those who lived with him in habits of intimacy adored him, those who saw him occasionally loved him, and even his most bitter opponents could not hate him. One of these did not hesitate to say of him, 'Never was a man in private life more beloved; and his enemies allow no man did ever in private life deserve it more. He was humane and grateful, and a generous friend to all who he did not think would abuse that friendship. This character naturally procured that attachment to his person, which has been falsely attributed solely to a corrupt influence and to private interest; but this shewed itself at a time when these principles were very faint in their operation, and when his ruin seemed inevitable.'

"Good temper and equanimity were his leading characteristics, and the placability imprinted on his countenance was not belied by his

conduct. Of this disposition, his generous rival, Pulteney, thought so highly, that, in a conversation with Johnson, he said, 'Sir Robert was of a temper so calm and equal, and so hard to be provoked, that he was very sure he never felt the bitterest invectives against him for half an hour.'

"His deportment was manly and decisive, yet affable and condescending; he was easy of access; his manner of bestowing a favour heightened the obligation; and his manner of declining was so gracious that few persons went out of his company discontented.

"Among those parts of his convivial character which have attracted attention, his laugh is noticed for singular gaiety and heartiness. His son familiarly observed to me, 'It would have done you good to hear him laugh.' Sir Charles Hanbury Williams says of him, that he 'laughed the heart's laugh.' Nicholas Hardinge elegantly noticed its peculiarity, '*proprioque vincit seria risu.*'

"His conversation was sprightly, animated, and facetious, yet occasionally coarse and vulgar, and too often licentious to an unpardonable degree.

"In company with women he assumed an air of gallantry, which even in his younger days was ill-suited to his manner and character, but in his latter years was totally incompatible with his age and figure. He affected in his conversation with the sex a trifling levity; but his gaiety was rough and boisterous; his wit too often coarse and licentious.

"If we may believe lord Chesterfield, who knew him well, but whose pen was dipped in gall when he drew his character, 'His prevailing weakness was to be thought
'to

‘to have a polite and happy turn to gallantry, of which he had undoubtedly less than any man living; it was his favourite and frequent subject of conversation; which proved, to those who had any penetration, that it was his prevailing weakness, and they applied to it with success.’ Pulteney also said of him, ‘A writer who would tell him of his success in his amours, would gain his confidence in a higher degree than one who commended the conduct of his administration.’ To this foible also a poetaster, after speaking of him under the name of sir Robert Brags, alludes:

‘Nay, to divert the sneering town,
Is next a general lover grown,
Affects to talk of his amours,
And boasts of having ruin’d scores,
While all who hear him bite the lip,
And scarce with pain their laughter keep.’

“This foible he shared in common with many able men, and particularly with cardinal Richelieu, who piqued himself more on being a man of gallantry than on being a great minister. It is some consolation for persons of inferior abilities, that men of superior talents are not exempt from the infirmities of human nature, and it is no uncommon circumstance, to prefer flattery on those points in which we wish to excel, to just praise for those in which we are known to excel.

“He is justly blamed for a want of political decorum, and for deriding public spirit, to which Pope alludes:

‘Would he oblige me, let me only find,
He does not think me, what he thinks mankind.’

“Although it is not possible to justify him, yet this part of his conduct has been greatly exaggerated.

The political axiom generally attributed to him, that all men have their price, and which has been so often repeated in verse and prose, was perverted by leaving out the word *those*. Flowery oratory he despised; he ascribed to the interested views of themselves or their relatives, the declarations of pretended patriots, of whom he said, ‘All those men have their price,’ and, in the event, many of them justified his observation. No man was more ready to honour and do justice to sincerity and consistency. He always mentioned his friend the duke of Devonshire in terms of the highest affection and respect, and even applauded the uniform conduct of one of his constant opponents. ‘I will not say,’ he observed, ‘who is corrupt, but I will say who is not, and that is Shippen.’

“His own conduct sufficiently belied the axiom erroneously imputed to him. He was consistent and uniform, never deviating in one single instance from his attachment to the protestant succession. He was neither awed by menaces or swayed by corruption; he held one line of conduct with unabating perseverance, and terminated his political career with the same sentiments of loyalty which distinguished his outset.

“He was naturally liberal, and even prodigal. His buildings at Houghton were more magnificent than suited his circumstances, and drew on him great obloquy. He felt the impropriety of this expenditure, and on seeing his brother’s house at Wolterton, expressed his wishes that he had contented himself with a similar structure. The following anecdote also shews that he regretted his profusion: sitting by sir John Hynde Cotton, during the reign of queen Anne, and in allu-

allusion to a sumptuous house which was then building by Harley; he observed, that to construct a great house was a high act of imprudence in any minister. Afterwards, when he had pulled down the family mansion at Houghton, and raised a magnificent edifice, being reminded of that observation by sir John Hynde Cotton, he readily acknowledged its justness and truth, but added, 'Your recollection is too late, I wish you had reminded me of it before I began building, it might then have been of service to me.'

"His style of living was consonant to the magnificence of his mansion. He had usually two annual meetings at Houghton, the one in the spring, to which were invited only the most select friends and the leading members of the cabinet, continued about three weeks. The second was in autumn, towards the commencement of the shooting season. It continued six weeks or two months, and was called the congress. At this time Houghton was filled with company from all parts. He kept a public table, to which all gentlemen in the county found a ready admission.

"The expences of these meetings have been computed at 3000*l*. Nothing could be more ill-judged than the enormous profusion, except the company for which it was made. The mixed multitude consisted of his friends in both houses, and of their friends. The noise and uproar, the waste and confusion, were prodigious. The best friends of sir Robert Walpole in vain remonstrated against this scene of riot and misrule. As the minister himself was fond of mirth and jollity, the conviviality of their

meetings was too frequently carried to excess, and lord Townshend, whose dignity of deportment and decorum of character revolted against these scenes, which he called the Bacchanalian orgies of Houghton, not unfrequently quitted Rainsford during their continuance. But notwithstanding these censures, and the impropriety of such conduct, it undoubtedly gained and preserved to the minister numerous adherents, who applauded a mode of living so analogous to the spirit of ancient hospitality.

"This profusion would have been highly disgraceful had it been attended with a rapacious disposition. On the contrary, he gave many instances of carelessness and disregard of his private fortune. He expended 14,000*l*. in building a new lodge in Richmond park; and when the king, on the death of Bothmar, in 1738, offered him the house in Downing-street, he refused it as his own property, but accepted it as an appendage to the office of chancellor of the exchequer.

"He was, from his early youth, fond of the diversions of the field, and retained this taste till prevented by the infirmities of age. He was accustomed to hunt in Richmond park with a pack of beagles. On receiving a packet of letters he usually opened that from his gamekeeper first; and he was fond of sitting for his picture in his sporting dress. He was, like chancellor Oxenstiern, a sound sleeper, and used to say, 'that he put off his cares with his cloaths.'

"His social qualities were generally acknowledged. He was animated and lively in conversation, and in the moment of festivity realised the fine eulogium which Pope has given of him.

'Seen

'Seen him, I have, but in his happier
hour
Of social pleasure, ill-exchang'd for
power;
Seen him, uncumber'd with the venal
tribe,
Smile without art, and win without a
bribe.'

Epilogue to the SATIRES.

"To the virtues of sir Robert Walpole I feel regret in not being able to add that he was the patron of letters and the friend of science. But he unquestionably does not deserve that honourable appellation, and in this instance his rank in the temple of fame is far inferior to that of Halifax, Oxford, and Bolingbroke. It is a matter of wonder, that a minister who had received a learned education, and was no indifferent scholar, should have paid such little attention to the muses. Nor can it be denied, that this neglect of men of letters was highly disadvantageous to his administration, and exposed him to great obloquy. The persons employed in justifying his measures, and repelling the attacks of the opposition, were by no means equal to the task of combating Pulteney, Bolingbroke, and Chesterfield, those Goliaths of opposition; and the political pamphlets written in his defence, are far inferior in humour, argument, and style, to the publications of his adversaries.

"Pope has ably satirised the herd of political writers employed by the minister, first in the epilogue to the Satires, and in the Dunciad.

'Next plung'd a feeble, but a desperate
pack,
With each a sickly brother at his back:
Sons of a day! just buoyant on the flood,
These number'd with the puppies in the
mud,
Ask ye their names? I could as soon dis-
close
The names of these blind puppies as of
those.

Fast by, like Niobe, (her children gone)
Sits mother Osborne, stupify'd to stone!
And monumental brass this record bears,
These are,——ah, no, these were the
gazetteers!'

"But that he did not wholly neglect literary merit, appears from the grateful strains of the author of the Night Thoughts, for whom he procured a pension from George the first, and which was increased at his suggestion by George the second, to 200*l.* a year, at that time no inconsiderable reward.

'At this the muse shall kindle, and
aspire:
My breast, O Walpole, glows with grate-
ful fire,
The streams of royal bounty, turn'd by
thee,
Refresh the dry remains of poetry.
My fortune flows, when arts are Wal-
pole's care,
What slender worth forbids us to despair.
Be this thy partial smile from censure
free;
'Twas meant for merit, though it fell on
me.'

"The truth is, sir Robert Walpole did not delight in letters, and always considered poets as not men of business. He was often heard to say, that they were fitter for speculation than for action, that they trusted to theory rather than to experience, and were guided by principles inadmissible in practical life. His opinion was confirmed by the experience of his own time. Prior made but an indifferent negotiator; his friend Steele was wholly incapable of application, and Addison a miserable secretary of state. He was so fully impressed with these notions, that when he made Congreve commissioner of the customs, he said, 'You will find he has no head for business.'

"Low persons were employed by government, and profusely paid, some of whom not unfrequently pro-
pagated

nagated in private conversation, and even in public clubs, disadvantageous reports of the minister, and declared that high rewards induced them to write against their real sentiments. Several known disseminators of infidelity were engaged to defend his measures. Many warm remonstrances were frequently made by the minister's friends against employing such low mercenaries, but usually disregarded. Some of these insignificant writers had frequent access to him. Their delusive and encouraging accounts of persons and things, were too often more credited than the sincere and free intimations of those who were more capable of giving accurate information. But this seems an error too common in ministers: they prefer favourable accounts to dismal truth, and readily believe what they wish to be true.

"It is a natural curiosity to inquire into the behaviour and occupations of a minister retired from business, and divested of that power which he had long enjoyed. Those who admired his talents, while he swayed senates and governed kingdoms, contemplate him, 'in their mind's eye,' enjoying his retreat with dignity, and passing his leisure hours with calmness and complacency. Yet nothing in general is more unsatisfactory than such an inquiry, or more illusive than such a preconceived opinion. The well-known saying, 'that no man is a hero to his valet-de-chambre,' may be applied with strict justice to this case. Sir Robert Walpole experienced the truth of the observation, that a fallen minister is like a professed beauty, who has lost her charms, and to whom the recollection of past conquests but poorly compensates for present neglect,

"Though he had not forgotten his classical attainments, he had little taste for literary occupations. He once expressed his regret on this subject to Fox, who was reading in the library at Houghton. 'I with,' he said, 'I took as much delight in reading as you do, it would be the means of alleviating many tedious hours in my present retirement; but to my misfortune I derive no pleasure from such pursuits.' On another occasion, he said to his son Horace, who, with a view to amuse him, was preparing to read some historical performance, 'O! do not read history, for that I know must be false.'

"His principal amusement consisted in planting, observing the growth of his former plantations, and in seeing his son Horace arrange the fine collection of pictures at Houghton. He had a good taste for painting, and his observations on the style of the respective masters were usually judicious.

"A letter which he wrote from Houghton to general Churchill, in 1743, was much admired, as indicating a love of retirement, and contempt of past grandeur. Yet this letter strikes me in a contrary light: it proves that he was weary of that repose which he affected to praise; and that he did not, as much as he professed, taste the charms of the inanimate world. The trite observation, 'that the beeches do not deceive,' proves either that he regretted the times that were past, or that with all his penetration, he had not, when in power, made a just estimate of the deceitfulness and treachery of dependents and courtiers. Houghton had been either the temporary place of retirement from public business, or the scene of friendly intercourse and

and convivial jollity, and neglect rendered it comparatively a solitude. He saw and felt this desertion with greater sensibility than became his good sense; but in the calm and solitude of total retirement, such disagreeable reflections occur often and sink deep. The season of natural gaiety was irrecoverably past, he laboured under a painful distemper; the ill-assorted marriage of his eldest son, and embarrassed situation of his own affairs, preyed on his mind, and increased his dejection.

“This state of mind was natural. Every circumstance must have appeared uninteresting to a man, who, from the twenty-third year of his age, had been uniformly engaged in scenes of political exertion, who, from the commencement of his parliamentary career, had passed a life of unremitting activity, and made a conspicuous figure in the senate, and in the cabinet.

“To him who had directed the helm of government in England, and whose decisions affected the

interests of Europe in general, all speculative opinions must have appeared dull. To him who had drawn all his knowledge and experience from practice, all theory must have appeared trifling or erroneous. He who had fathomed the secrets of all the cabinets of Europe, must have considered history as a tissue of fables, and have smiled at the folly of those writers, who affected to penetrate into state affairs, and account for all the motives of action. He who had long been the dispenser of honours and wealth, must have perceived a wide difference between the cold expressions of duty and friendship, and the warm effusions of that homage which self-interest and hope inspire in those who court or expect favours. He must have been divested of human passions, had he not experienced some mortification in finding, that he had been indebted to his situation for much of that obsequious regard which he had fondly thought was paid to his personal qualities.”

CHARACTER OF GAINSBOROUGH.

[From the *FOUR AGES*, &c. by WILLIAM JACKSON.]

“IN the early part of my life I became acquainted with Thomas Gainsborough the painter; and as his character was, perhaps, better known to me than to any other person, I will endeavour to divest myself of every partiality, and speak of him as he really was. I am the rather induced to this, by seeing accounts of him and his works given by people who were unacquainted with either, and, consequently, have been mistaken in both.

“Gainsborough’s profession was

painting, and music was his amusement—yet, there were times when music seemed to be his employment, and painting his diversion. As his skill in music has been celebrated, I will, before I speak of him as a painter, mention what degree of merit he professed as a musician.

“When I first knew him he lived at Bath, where Giardini had been exhibiting his *then* unrivalled powers on the violin. His excellent performance made Gainsborough enamoured of that instrument; and con-

conceiving, like the servant-maid in the Spectator, that the music lay in the fiddle, he was frantic until he possessed the *very* instrument which had given him so much pleasure—but seemed much surprised that the music of it remained behind with Giardini!

“He had scarcely recovered this shock (for it was a great one to him), when he heard Abel on the viol-di-gamba. The violin was hung on the willow—Abel’s viol-di-gamba was purchased, and the house resounded with melodious thirds and fifths from ‘morn to dewy eve!’ Many an adagio and many a minuet were begun, but none completed—this was wonderful, as it was Abel’s *own* instrument, and therefore *ought* to have produced Abel’s own music!

“Fortunately, my friend’s passion had now a fresh object—Fischer’s hautboy—but I do not recollect that he deprived Fischer of his instrument: and though he procured a hautboy, I never heard him make the least attempt on it. Probably his ear was too delicate to bear the disagreeable sounds which necessarily attend the first beginnings on a wind-instrument. He seemed to content himself with what he heard in public, and getting Fischer to play to him in private—not on the hautboy, but the violin—but this was a profound secret, for Fischer knew that his reputation was in danger if he pretended to excel on two instruments.

“The next time I saw Gainsborough it was in the character of king David. He had heard a harper at Bath—the performer was soon left harpless—and now Fischer, Abel, and Giardini, were all forgotten—there was nothing like chords and arpeggios! He really

stuck to the harp long enough to play several airs with variations, and, in a little time, would nearly have exhausted all the pieces usually performed on an instrument incapable of modulation (this was not a pedal harp), when another visit from Abel brought him back to the viol-di-gamba.

“He now saw the imperfection of sudden sounds that instantly die away—if you wanted a *staccato*, it was to be had by a proper management of the bow, and you might also have notes as long as you please. The viol-di-gamba is the only instrument, and Abel the prince of musicians!

“This, and occasionally a little flirtation with the fiddle, continued some years; when, as ill-luck would have it, he heard Crofdill—but, by some irregularity of conduct, for which I cannot account, he neither took up, nor bought, the violoncello. All his passion for the bass was vented in descriptions of Crofdill’s tone and bowing, which was rapturous and enthusiastic to the last degree.

“More years now passed away, when, upon seeing a theorbo in a picture of Vandyke’s, he concluded (perhaps because it was finely painted) that the theorbo must be a fine instrument. He recollected to have heard of a German professor, who, though no more, I shall forbear to name—ascended *per varios gradus* to his garret, where he found him at dinner upon a roasted apple, and smoking a pipe—* * * says he, ‘I am come to buy your lute.’

‘To pay my lute!’

‘Yes—come, name your price, and here is your money.’

‘I cannot sell my lute!’

‘No, not for a guinea or two! but by G— you must sell it.’

“

‘May

‘May lude ish wert much mon-
‘nay! it ish wert ten guinea.’

‘That it is—see, here is the
‘money.’

‘Well, if I musht—but you will
‘not take it away yourself?’

‘Yis, yea—good bye’ * * *

(“After he had gone down he
‘came up again.”)

‘* * * I have done but half my
‘errand. What is your lute worth,
‘if I have not your book?’

‘Whad poog, maister Cainf-
‘porough?’

‘Why, the book of airs you
‘have composd for the lute.’

‘Ah, py cot, I can never part
‘wit my poog!’

‘Don! you can make another
‘at any time: this is the book I
‘mean’ (putting it in his pocket).

‘Ah, py cot, I cannot—

‘Come, come, here’s another
‘ten guineas for your book; so,
‘once more, good day t’ ve. (De-
‘scends again, and again comes
‘up.) But what use is your book
‘to me, if I don’t understand it?
‘And your lute—you may take it
‘again, if you won’t teach me to
‘play on it. Come home with me,
‘and give me my first lesson.’

‘I will come to-morrow.’

‘You must come now.’

‘I musht tress myself.’

‘For what? You are the best
‘figure I have seen to-day.’

‘Ay musht be slave’

‘I honour your beard?’

‘Ay musht bad on my wlk.’

‘D—n your wig! your cap
‘and beard become you! do you
‘think, if Vandyke was to paint
‘you he’d let you be shaved?’

“In this manner he flattered
away his musical talents; and
though possessed of ear, taste, and
genius, he never had application
enough to learn his notes. He
feared to take the first step, the

second was of course out of his
reach; and the summit became
unattainable.

“As a painter, his abilities may
be considered in three different de-
partments.

“Portrait,

“Landscape, and

“Groups of figures—to which
must be added his drawings.

“To take these in the above-
mentioned order.

“The first consideration in a
portrait, especially to the purchaser,
is, that it be a perfect likeness of
the sitter—in this respect his skill
was unrivalled. The next point is,
that it is a good picture—here he
has as often failed as succeeded.
He failed by affecting a thin washy
colouring, and a hatching style of
pencilling; but when, from acci-
dent or choice, he painted in the
manly substantial style of Vandyke,
he was very little, if at all, his infe-
rior. It shows a great defect in
judgment to be from choice wrong,
when we know what is right. Per-
haps his best portrait is that known
among the painters by the name of
the Blue-boy; it was in the pos-
session of Mr. Battall, near New-
port-market.

“There are three different eras
in his landscapes: his first manner
was an imitation of Ruysdael, with
more various colouring; the se-
cond was an extravagant looseness
of painting, which, though re-
prehensible, none but a great master
can possess. His third manner was
a solid firm style of touch.

“At this last period he possessed
his greatest powers, and was (what
every painter is at some time or
other) fond of varnish. This pro-
duced the usual effects—improved
the picture for two or three months;
then ruined it for ever! With all
his excellence in this branch of the

art, he was a great mannerist; but the worst of his pictures have a value, from the facility of execution—which excellence I shall again mention.

“His groups of figures are, for the most part, very pleasing, though unnatural; for a town-girl,* with her cloaths in rags, is not a ragged country-girl. Notwithstanding this remark, there are numberless instances of his groups at the door of a cottage, or by a fire in a wood, &c. that are so pleasing as to disarm criticism. He sometimes (like Murillo) gave interest to a single figure: his Shepherd’s boy, Woodman, Girl and pigs, are equal to the best pictures on such subjects. His Fighting-dogs, Girl warming herself, and some others, show his great powers in this style of painting. The very distinguished rank the Girl and pigs held at Mr. Calonne’s sale, in company with some of the best pictures of the best masters, will fully justify a commendation which might else seem extravagant.

“If I were to rest his reputation upon one point, it should be on his drawings. No man ever possessed methods so various in producing effect, and all excellent; his washy, hatching style, was here in its proper element. The subject which is scarce enough for a picture, is sufficient for a drawing, and the hasty loose handling, which in painting is poor, is rich in a transparent wash of bistre and Indian ink. Perhaps the quickest effects ever produced were in some of his drawings; and this leads me to take up again his facility of execution.

“Many of his pictures have no other merit than this facility; and yet, having it, are undoubtedly valuable. His drawings almost rest

on this quality alone for their value; but possessing it in an eminent degree, (and as no drawing can have any merit where it is wanting,) his works, therefore, in this branch of the art, approach nearer to perfection than his paintings.

“If the term *facility* explain not itself; instead of a definition, I will illustrate it.

“Should a performer of middling execution on the violin contrive to get through his piece, the most that can be said is, that he has not failed in his attempt. Should Cramer perform the same music, it would be so much within his powers, that it would be executed with ease. Now, the superiority of pleasure, which arises from the execution of a Cramer, is enjoyed from the facility of a Gainsborough. A poor piece performed by one, or a poor subject taken by the other, give more pleasure by the manner in which they are treated, than a good piece of music, and a sublime subject in the hands of artists that have not the means by which effects are produced, in subjection to them. To a good painter or musician this illustration was needless; and yet, by them only, perhaps, it will be felt and understood.

“By way of addition to this sketch of Gainsborough, let me mention a few miscellaneous particulars.

“He had no relish for historical painting; he never sold, but always gave away his drawings, commonly to persons who were perfectly ignorant of their value. He hated the harpsichord and the piano-forte. He disliked singing, particularly in parts. He detested reading; but was so like Sterne in his Letters, that, if it were not for an originality that could be copied from no one, it might be supposed

that he had formed his style upon a close imitation of that author. He had as much pleasure in looking at a violin as in hearing it—I have seen him for many minutes surveying, in silence, the perfections of an instrument, from the just proportion of the model, and beauty of the workmanship.

“His conversation was sprightly, but licentious; his favourite subjects were music and painting, which he treated in a manner peculiarly his own. The common topics, or any of a superior cast, he thoroughly hated, and always interrupted by some stroke of wit or humour.

“The indiscriminate admirers of

my late friend will consider this sketch of his character as far beneath his merit; but it must be remembered, that my wish was not to make it perfect, but just. The same principle obliges me to add, that as to his common acquaintance he was sprightly and agreeable, so to his intimate friends he was sincere and honest, and that his heart was always alive to every feeling of honour and generosity.

“He died with this expression, ‘We are all going to Heaven, and ‘Vandyke is of the party’—strongly expressive of a good heart, a quiet conscience, and a love for his profession, which only left him with his life.”

BIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF DR. ENFIELD.

[From the MEMOIRS of the AUTHOR, by J. AIKIN, M. D. prefixed to the first Volume of SERMONS ON PRACTICAL SUBJECTS, by W. ENFIELD, LL. D.]

“THE Rev. William Enfield, LL. D. was born at Sudbury in Suffolk, on March 29, 1741, O. S. In common with many other characters of moral and literary excellence, it was his lot to come into the world destitute of the advantages of birth or fortune. His parents were in a humble condition of life, which they rendered respectable by their virtues. His early education was probably on the narrow scale marked out by his circumstances. By his amiable disposition and promising parts he recommended himself to the Rev. Mr. Hextall, the dissenting minister of the place, who treated him with peculiar notice, and took pleasure in forming his youthful mind. He particularly awakened

in him a sensibility to the beauties of our principal poets; among whom, Akenfide, by the charms of his versification, and the exalted tone of his philosophy, was a peculiar favourite both with the instructor and the pupil. It appears to me no unreasonable supposition that to his early fondness for this author, Dr. Enfield was indebted, more than to any other single circumstance, for that uniform purity of language, that entire freedom from any thing like vulgarity, as well in conversation as in writing, by which he was ever distinguished. Mr. Hextall’s good opinion was probably the chief cause of his being devoted to the christian ministry. In his 17th year he was sent to the academy at Daventry, then

when conducted by the Rev. Dr. Ashworth. At this seminary he passed through the usual course of preparatory study for the pulpit. Of his academical character I know no more than that he was always conspicuous for the elegance of his compositions; and that he was among the number of those students whose inquiries led them to adopt a less rigid system of christianity than was the established doctrine of the place.

“It was a striking proof of the attractions he possessed as a preacher, and as an amiable man in society, that almost immediately on leaving the academy he was invited to undertake the office of sole minister to the congregation of Benn’s Garden in Liverpool, one of the most respectable among the dissenters. To that situation he was ordained in November 1763; and in a town abounding with agreeable society, and distinguished by liberal sentiments and hospitable manners, he passed seven of the happiest years of his life. He married, in 1767, Mary, the only daughter of Mr. Holland, draper in Liverpool; and a most cordial union of thirty years gave full proof of the felicity of his choice. Though greatly engaged both in the pleasant intercourses of society, and in the serious duties of his office, he commenced in this place his literary career with two volumes of sermons, printed in 1768 and 1770, which were very favourably received by the public. Their pleasing moral strain, marked by no systematic peculiarities, so well adapted them for general use, that many congregations, besides that in which they were originally preached, had the benefit of the instruction they conveyed. A collection of hymns, for the use of his congregation, and of family

prayers of his own composition, for private use, further added to his professional and literary reputation.

“On the death of the Rev. Mr. Seddon of Warrington, Mr. Enfield was one of the first persons thought of by the trustees of the academical institution founded in that place, to succeed him in the offices of tutor in the belles-lettres, and of resident conductor of the discipline, under the title of *Rector Academicæ*. With respect to his fitness for the first no doubt could be entertained. The second was an untried exertion, depending for its success upon qualities of temper rarely meeting in one individual. Whatever could be effected by those amiable endowments which conciliate affection, might be hoped from one who was become the delight of a large circle of acquaintance; but in those emergencies where firmness, resolution, and a kind of dignified severity of conduct might be requisite, there was cause to apprehend a failure. He had his misgivings, but they were overcome by the encouragement and importunity of friends; and the offered situation was in several respects such as might flatter a young man, fond of literary society, and ambitious of a proper field for the display of his talents. He accepted it, together with the office of minister to the dissenting congregation of Warrington. The occupations in which he engaged were extensive and complicated; but no man had ever a better right to confide in his own industry and readiness.

“Every one acquainted with the attempts that have been made by the dissenters to institute places of education for the advanced periods of youth, must have been sensible of the extreme difficulty of uniting the liberal plan of a collegiate life

with such a system of internal discipline as shall secure sobriety of manners, and diligence in the pursuit of study. Those sanctions which, however imperfectly, serve as engines of government in seminaries established by the state, must ever be wanting in private institutions, which cannot annex to the grossest violation of their laws a higher penalty than simple expulsion, followed by no disabilities or deprivations, and probably held extremely cheap by those who have most deserved it. Warrington had a full share of this difficulty; and also laboured under others, which rendered its existence, though at times it appeared flourishing and respectable, little better than a long struggle against incurable disease. The efforts of Dr. Enfield were faithfully joined, with those of his colleagues, to support its credit, and to remedy evils as they occurred. His diligence was exemplary; his services as a public and private tutor were numerous and valuable; his attention to discipline was, at least, uninterrupted; but it may be acknowledged that the arduous post of domestic superintendant, and enforcer of the laws, was not that for which he was best calculated. So sensible, indeed, was he of his deficiency in this respect, and so much did he find his tranquillity injured by the scenes to which he was exposed, that he made a very serious attempt to free himself from the burden, by resigning this part of his charge; and it was only after the failure of various applications by the trustees to engage a successor, that he suffered himself to be persuaded to retain it. In fine, the crisis of the institution arrived in 1783, and its embarrassments were cured by its dissolution.

“However toilsome and anxious

this period of Dr. Enfield's life might have been, it was that of rapid mental improvement. By the company he kept, and the business he had to go through, his faculties were strained to full exertion; nor was it only as a tutor that he employed his talents; he greatly extended his reputation as a writer.”

“On a vacancy in the mathematical department of the academy it was found impracticable to give adequate encouragement from the funds it possessed to a separate tutor in that branch. Dr. Enfield was therefore strongly urged to undertake it; and by the hard study of one vacation he qualified himself to set out with a new class, which he instructed with great clearness and precision; himself advancing in the science in proportion to the demand, till he became a very excellent teacher in all the parts which were requisite in the academical course.

“The degree of doctor of laws, which added a new title to his name during his residence at Warrington, was conferred upon him by the university of Edinburgh.

“After the dissolution of the academy, Dr. Enfield remained two years at Warrington, occupied in the education of private pupils, a small number of whom he took as boarders, and in the care of his congregation. For the instruction of the latter he drew up a series of discourses on the principal incidents and moral precepts of the gospel, in which he displayed both his talents as a commentator, and his skill in expanding into general lessons of conduct, those hints and particular observations which occur in the sacred narratives. This will not be an improper place to give some account of Dr. Enfield's character as a preacher and a divine. His man-

ner

mer of delivery was grave and im-
 preſſive, affecting rather a tenor of
 uniform dignity than a variety of
 expreſſion, for which his voice was
 not well calculated. It was en-
 tirely free from what is called *tons*,
 and though not highly animated,
 was by no means dull, and never
 careleſs or indifferent. As to his
 matter, it was almoſt excluſively
 that of a *moral preacher*. Religion
 was to him rather a principle than
 a ſentiment; and he was more ſoli-
 citous to deduce from it a *rule of*
life, enforced by its peculiar ſanc-
 tions, than to elevate it into a
 ſource of ſublime feeling. Deſpiſ-
 ing ſuperſtition, and fearing en-
 thuſiaſm, he held as of inferior val-
 ue every thing in religion which
 could not ally itſelf with morality,
 and condeſcend to human uſes.
 His theological ſyſtem was purged
 of every myſterious or unintelligi-
 ble propoſition; it included no-
 thing which appeared to him irre-
 concilable with ſound philoſophy,
 and the moſt rational opinions con-
 cerning the divine nature and per-
 fections. Poſſibly the teſt of ra-
 tionality might with him ſuperſede
 that of literary criticiſm. It will
 be ſeen from the ſubjects ſelected
 for publication, that moral topics
 were much more congenial to
 him than doctrinal ones; and his
 character as a public inſtructor
 muſt be derived from the manner
 in which he has treated theſe.
 Probably it will be found that
 ſcarcely any writer has entered with
 more delicacy into the minute and
 leſs obvious points of morality—
 has more ſkilfully marked out the
 nice diſcriminations of virtue and
 vice, of the fit and unfit. He has
 not only delineated the path of the
 ſtrictly right, but of the amiable
 and becoming. He has aimed at
 rendering mankind not only mu-

tually ſerviceable, but mutually a-
 greeable; and has delighted in
 painting true goodneſs with all thoſe
 colours which it was ſaid of old
 would make her ſo enchanting
 ſhould ſhe ever become viſible to
 mortal eyes.

It will, perhaps, be expected
 that ſomething ſhould be ſaid of
 Dr. Enfield in the peculiar charac-
 ter of a *diſſenter*. To *diſſent* was
 by no means a part of his natural
 diſpoſition; on the contrary, he
 could not without a ſtruggle diſſer
 from thoſe whom he ſaw dignified
 by ſtation, reſpectable for learning
 and morals, and amiable in the in-
 tercourſe of ſociety. Nor was the
 voice of authority, when mildly
 and reaſonably exerted, a ſignal to
 him of reſiſtance, but rather a call
 to acquieſcence. It is therefore not
 to be wondered at, that there was a
 period in his life when he looked
 towards the religious eſtabliſhment
 of his country with a wiſh that no
 inſuperable barrier ſhould exiſt to
 the excluſion of thoſe who, with-
 out violating the abſolute dictates
 of conſcience, might deſire to join
 it. Inclined by temper and ſyſtem
 to think well of mankind, and to
 entertain ſanguine hopes of their
 progreſs towards truth and reaſon,
 he could not bring himſelf to ima-
 gine that the active efforts (which
 we may all remember) of many ex-
 cellent perſons to produce a further
 reform in the Engliſh church, and
 render the terms of entrance into
 its miniſtry more eaſy and liberal,
 would in the end fail of their ef-
 ſect. This idea dwelt long and
 weightily on his mind, and diſpoſed
 him rather to regard the conformi-
 ties, than the differences, be-
 tween ſyſtems which he expected
 to ſee continually more nearly ap-
 proaching each other. Moreover,
 the correct and elegant language,

and the manly strain of morality, which then characterised the pulpit compositions of the most eminent of the clergy, commanded his entire approbation; and he thought that a mutual oblivion of topics of controversy might take place, from a consent in all friends of rational religion to confine their public discourses to subjects on which no differences existed between them. He lived, however, to see all his expectations of this amicable union frustrated—to see hierarchical claims maintained more dogmatically than before—and the chief stress of religion placed upon those doctrines in which the English church-articles most differ from the opinions of that class of dissenters to which he belonged. He lived, therefore, to become a more decided separatist than ever; and I am sure, that for many years before his death, though all his personal candour and good-will towards the opposite party remained, no consideration would have induced him to range himself under its banners. The rights of private judgment and public discussion, and all the fundamental points of civil and religious liberty, were become more and more dear to him; and he asserted them with a courage and zeal which seemed scarcely to have belonged to his habitual temper. A very manly discourse, which he published in 1788, on the hundredth anniversary of the revolution, sufficiently testifies his sentiments on these important subjects.

“It is now time to return to biographical narrative. In 1785, receiving an invitation from the octagon-dissenting congregation at Norwich, a society with whom any man might esteem it an honour and happiness to be connected, he accepted it, under the condition of residing

at a small distance from the city, and continuing his plan of domestic education. He first settled at the pleasant village of Thorpe; but at length he found it more convenient to remove to Norwich itself. Though he was eminently happy in his mode of educating a small number, of which several striking examples might be adduced, yet, like most who have adopted that plan, he found that the difficulty of keeping up a regular supply of pupils, and the unpleasant restraint arising from a party of young men, so far domiciliated, that they left neither time nor place for family privacy, more than compensated the advantages to be derived from such an employment of his talents. He finally removed, therefore, to a smaller habitation, entirely declined receiving boarders, and only gave private instructions to two or three select pupils a few hours in the forenoon. At length he determined to be perfectly master of his own time, and to give to his family, friends, and spontaneous literary pursuits, all the leisure he possessed from his professional duties. The circumstances of his family confirmed him in this resolution. He was the father of two sons and three daughters, all educated under his own eye; and had he had no other examples to produce of his power of making himself at the same time a friend and a tutor—of conciliating the most tender affection with ready and undeviating obedience—his children would, by all who know them, be admitted as sufficient proofs of this happy art. They became every thing that their parents could wish;—but the eldest son, after passing with uncommon reputation through his clerkship to an attorney (Mr. Roscoe, of Liverpool), and advancing so far in his profes-

professional career as to be appointed, when just of age, town-clerk of Nottingham, was suddenly snatched away by a fever. The doctor bore his grievous loss with exemplary resignation; but the struggle produced effects on his health which alarmed his friends. Symptoms resembling those of the fatal disease termed *angina pectoris* came on; indeed, it may be said, that he really laboured under an incipient state of this disorder. But time, medicine, and happier subjects of reflection, restored him to health and cheerfulness. He had the felicity of seeing two of his daughters most desirably settled in marriage. His remaining son bid fair to become all that the other had been. He was, therefore, fully entitled to enjoy himself in the domestic freedom he loved, and to confine his future exertions to those lettered employments which, to one of his industrious habits, were necessary to give a zest to social relaxation.

He had not yet completely detached himself from the business of tuition, when he undertook the most laborious of his literary tasks, an abridgment of 'Brucker's History of Philosophy.' This work appeared in two volumes, 4to. in the year 1791, and would alone have been sufficient to establish the writer's character as a master of the middle style of composition, and as a judicious selector of what was most valuable in the representation of manners and opinions. The original work has obtained a high reputation among the learned, for the depth of its researches, and the liberality of its spirit; but its Latin style is involved and prolix, and the heaviness that pervades the whole has rendered it rather a book for occasional consultation than for di-

rect perusal. Dr. Enfield's abridgment is a work equally instructive and agreeable; and it may be pronounced that the tenets of all the leading sects of philosophers were never before in the English language displayed with such elegance and perspicuity. It was, indeed, his peculiar talent to arrange and express other men's ideas to the greatest advantage. His style, chaste, clear, correct, free from all affectation and singularity, was proper for all topics; and the spirit of method and order which reigned in his own mind, communicated itself to every subject which he touched upon. These qualities, together with that candour which was interwoven in his very constitution, especially fitted him to take a part in a literary journal; and to one of the most respectable of these works he was long a considerable contributor. The institution of a new magazine, under the name of the *Monthly*, which in its plan embraced a larger circle of original literature than usual with these miscellanies, engaged him to exercise his powers as an essayist on a variety of topics; and the papers with which he enriched it, under the title of *the Inquirer*, obtained great applause from the manly freedom of their sentiment, and the correct elegance of their language.

"Thus did his latter years glide on, tranquil and serene, in the bosom of domestic comfort, surrounded by friends to whom he became continually more dear, and in the midst of agreeable occupations. So well confirmed did his health appear, and so much did he feel himself in the full vigour and maturity of his powers, that he did not hesitate, in the year 1796, to associate himself with the writer of this account, one of his oldest and most intimate companions,

panions, in a literary undertaking of great magnitude, which looked to a distant period for its completion. Were it not the duty of mortals to employ their talents in the way they can approve, without regarding contingencies which they can neither foresee nor overrule, such an engagement, in persons descending into the vale of years, might be accused of presumption; but it implied in them no more than a resolution to act with diligence as long as they should be permitted to act—to work while it is called to-day, mindful of that approaching night when no man can work. The composition, that of a *General Biographical Dictionary*, proved so agreeable to Dr. Enfield, that he was often heard to say, his hours of study had never passed so pleasantly with him; and the progress he made was proportioned to his industry and good-will. Every circumstance seemed to promise him years of comfort in store. He was happy himself, and imparted that happiness to all who came within the sphere of his influence. But an incurable disease was in the mean time making unsuspected advances. A scirrhus contraction of the rectum, denoting itself only by symptoms which he did not understand, and which, therefore, he imperfectly described to his medical friends, was preparing, without pain or general disease, to effect a sudden and irresistible change. The

very day before this disorder manifested itself he was complimented on his cheerful spirits, and healthy looks, and himself confessed that he had nothing, bodily or mental, of which he ought to complain. But the obstruction was now formed. A sickness came on, the proper functions of the intestines were suspended, nothing was able to give relief; and after a week, passed rather in constant uneasiness than in acute pain, with his faculties entire nearly to the last, foreseeing the fatal event, and meeting it with manly fortitude, he sunk in the arms of his children and friends, and expired without a struggle. This catastrophe took place on Nov. 3, 1797, in the fifty-seventh year of his life. The deep regrets of all who knew him—of those the most to whom he was best known—render it unnecessary to enter into any further description of a character, the essence of which was to be *amicable*. A man's writings have often proved very inadequate tests of his dispositions. Those of Dr. Enfield, however, are not. They breathe the very spirit of his gentle and generous soul. He loved mankind, and wished nothing so much as to render them the worthy objects of love. This is the leading character of the discourses selected for publication; as it is, indeed, of all he composed. May their effect equal the most sanguine wishes of their benevolent author!

ANECDOTES OF LAVATER.

[From the first Volume of a TOUR IN SWITZERLAND, &c. by HELEN MARIA WILLIAMS.]

WE staid long enough at Zurich to visit its first literary ornament Lavater. It being known that he is willing to receive strangers, no traveller of any lettered curiosity passes through the town, without paying him the homage of a visit.

He received us in his library, which was hung thick with portraits and engravings, of which he has a considerable collection, forming a complete study of the ever-varying expression of the human face divine. Some very wise men, who admit of no scope to that faculty of the mind called imagination, and are for ever bringing every theory to the square and the compass, consider his system of physiognomy as the fantastic vision of an heated brain; but though it may be difficult, it is surely ingenious and interesting to attempt reducing to rules a science, which seems to be founded in nature. It is surely curious to analyse what it is so easy to feel, the charm of that expression, which is the emanation of moral qualities; that undefinable grace which is not beauty, but something more; without which its enchantments lose their power of fascination, and which can shed an animated glow, a spark of divinity, over the features of deformity:

‘Mind, mind alone, bear witness earth,
and heaven.

The living fountain in itself contains
Of beauteous and sublime.’

“Lavater is a venerable-looking old man, with a sharp long face, high features, and a wrinkled brow: he is tall, thin, and interesting in his figure; when serious he has a look of melancholy, almost of in-

quietude; but when he smiles, his countenance becomes lighted up with an expression of sweetness and intelligence.

“There is a simple eloquence in his conversation, an effusion of the heart extremely attractive: he speaks French with some difficulty, and whenever he is at a loss for an expression has recourse to German, which I in vain begged a Swiss gentleman, who was of our party, to translate for me: he told me, that for the most part the German words Lavater employed were compound-epithets of his own framing, which had peculiar energy as he used them, but which would be quite vapid and spiritless in translation.

“The great rule of moral conduct, Lavater said, in his opinion, was, next to God, to respect time. Time he considered as the most valuable of human treasures, and any waste of it as in the highest degree immoral. He rises every morning at the hour of five; and though it would be agreeable to him to breakfast immediately after rising, makes it an invariable rule to earn that repast by some previous labour; so that if by accident the rest of the day is spent to no useful purpose, some portion of it may at least be secured beyond the interruptions of chance.

“Lavater gave us a most pleasing account of morals in Zurich. He had been a preacher of the gospel, he said, in that town thirty years; and so incapable were the citizens of any species of corruption, that he should have rendered himself ridiculous had he ever during that long period preached a sermon

sermon against it, since it was a vice unknown. 'At what a distance,' thought I, 'am I arrived from London and Paris.'

"When we took our leave of Lavater, he begged we would write our names and place of abode in a book, which he appropriates to the use of inscribing the long list of his foreign visitors. An hour after my return from his house he came to pay me a visit, which I was taught to consider as an unusual compliment, since it is his general rule not to return the visits of strangers. Religion was the theme of his discourse, and he talked of its pleasures, its consolations, and its hopes, with a solemn sort of enthusiastic fervor, which shewed how much his heart was interested in the subject, and how warmly his sensibility was awake to devotional feelings. Although his zeal was not without knowledge, yet it was somewhat difficult to discover what was his system of belief: whether he was of Paul or Apollos, a follower of Calvin according to the established creed of the Swiss church, or whether he was not in some sort the framer of a new doctrine himself.

"One of my fellow-travellers, who was anxious to wrest from the venerable pastor his confession of faith, brought in review before him the various opinions of the fathers, orthodox and heretic; from Justin Martyr and Origen, down to the bishop of St. David's and Dr. Priestley. But Lavater did not appear to have made polemics his

study; he seemed to think right and wrong, in historical fact, of far less importance than right and wrong in religious sentiment; and above all, in human action. There was more of feeling than of logic in his conclusions; and he appeared to have taken less pains to examine religion, than to apply its precepts to the regulation of those frailties and passions of the human heart, the traces of which, hidden from others, he had marked with such admirable accuracy in the character and expression of outward forms. For myself, I own the solemn, meek, affectionate expression of Lavater's pious sentiments, were peculiarly soothing to my feelings, after having been so long runned with the cavils of French philosophers, or rather the impertinent comments of their disciples, who are so proud of their scepticism, that they are for ever obtruding it in conversation. The number of those disciples is augmented since the revolution, which has spread far and wide the writings of Rousseau and Voltaire; and every Frenchman, after having read those authors, though he may neither have taste enough to admire the charms of their genius, or virtue to feel the philanthropy of their sentiments, has, at least, acquired sufficient knowledge to assume the appellation of philosopher, and prove his claim to that title by enlisting himself under the banner of infidelity, without knowing the use of his arms."

MANNERS OF NATIONS.

DESCRIPTION of KASHMIRE, and CHARACTER of the INHABITANTS.

[From the second Volume of a JOURNEY from BENGAL to ENGLAND, through the northern Part of INDIA, &c. by GEORGE FORSTER.]

“THE valley of Kashmire is of an elliptic form, and extends about ninety miles in a winding direction from the south-east to the north-west. It widens gradually to Islamabad, where the breadth is about forty miles, which is continued with little variation to the town of Sampre, whence the mountains, by a regular inclination to the westward, come to a point, and divide Kashmire from the territory of Muzzufferabad. To the north and north-east, Kashmire is bounded by what is here termed the mountains of Thibet; a branch, I apprehend, of that immense range, which rising near the black sea, penetrates through Armenia, and skirting the south shore of the Caspian, extends through the north-east provinces of Persia, to Thibet and China. On the south-east and south, it is bounded by Kishtewar, and on the south-west and west, by Prounce, Muzzufferabad, and some other independent districts.

“The Jalum, the western of the Punjab rivers, having received the numerous rivulets of the valley, and the overflowing water of the lakes, becomes a spacious stream, and is discharged through the mountains near the town of Baramoulah,

where its current, from the declivity of the land, runs with rapid force. At Baramoulah the Kashmirians say Solomon rent the mountains, and gave a passage to the waters, which, from the beginning of time, had floated on their plains.

“About eight miles to the westward of the city, the Jalum is joined by a small river called the Chote, or little Scind, which, I was informed by a Kashmirian Pundit, arises in the Thibet mountains, and is the only stream not produced within the valley. Previously to the Mahometan conquest of India, Kashmire was celebrated for the learning of its Bramins and the magnificent construction of its temple. The period of its subjection to the Mahometans is not recorded in any history that I have seen, but we may believe, that a country, containing a valuable commerce and a profusion of natural beauties, would at an early date have attracted their notice and invited their conquest. It was governed in a long series of succession, by a race of Tartar princes, of the Chug or Chugatay tribe, until the year 1586, when Acbar subdued it: aided more, it is said, by intrigue, than the force of his arms. Kashmire remained annexed

annexed to the house of Timur for the space of one hundred and sixty years, after which it was betrayed by the Mogul governor, to Ahmed Shah Duranny, who formed it into a province of the Afghan empire.

"The valley of Kashmire has generally a flat surface, and being copiously watered, yields abundant crops of rice, which is the common food of the inhabitants. At the base of the surrounding hills, where the land is higher, wheat, barley, and various other grains are cultivated. A superior species of saffron is also produced in this province, and iron of an excellent quality is found in the adjacent mountains. But the wealth and fame of Kashmire have largely arisen from the manufacture of shauls, which it holds unrivalled, and almost without participation. The wool of the shaul is not produced in the country, but brought from districts of Thibet, lying at the distance of a month's journey to the north-east. It is originally of a dark grey colour, and is bleached in Kashmire by the help of a certain preparation of rice flour. The yarn of this wool is stained with such colours as may be judged the best suited for sale, and after being woven the piece is once washed. The border, which usually displays a variety of figures and colours, is attached to the shauls, after fabrication; but in so nice a manner, that the junction is not discernible. The texture of the shaul resembles that of the shaloon of Europe, to which it has probably communicated the name. The price, at the loom, of an ordinary shaul, is eight rupees, thence, in proportional quality, it produces from fifteen to twenty; and I have seen a very fine piece sold at forty rupees the first cost. But the value of this commodity may be largely enhanced by the in-

roduction of flowered work; and when you are informed that the sum of one hundred rupees is occasionally given for a shaul to the weaver, the half amount may be fairly ascribed to the ornaments.

"A portion of the revenue of Kashmire is transmitted to the Afghan capital in shaul goods, which I had an opportunity of seeing previously to the dispatch, and, from the information then received, I am reasonably confirmed in the accuracy of this statement I have given. The shauls usually consist of three sizes, two of which, the long and the small square one, are in common use in India; the other, long and very narrow, with a large mixture of black colour in it, is worn as a girdle by the northern Asiatics.

"A wine is made in Kashmire, resembling that of Madeira, which, if skilfully manufactured, by age, would possess an excellent quality. A spirituous liquor is also distilled from the grape, in which, and the wine, the people of all kinds freely indulge.

"The Kashmirians fabricate the best writing paper of the east, which was formerly an article of extensive traffic; as were its lacquer ware, cutlery and fugars; and the quality of these manufactures clearly evince, that were the inhabitants governed by wise and liberal principles, there are few attainments of art which they would not acquire. But the heavy oppressions of the government, and the rapacious temper of the bordering states, who exercise an unremitting rapacity on the foreign traders, and often plunder whole cargoes, have reduced the commerce of Kashmire to a declining and languid state. In proof of this position, the Kashmirians say, that during their subjection to the Mogul dominion, the province con-

contained forty thousand shawl looms, and that at this day there are not sixteen thousand. In Kashmir are seen merchants and commercial agents of most of the principal cities of northern India, also of Tartary, Persia and Turkey, who at the same time advance their fortunes, and enjoy the pleasures of a fine climate and a country, over which are profusely spread the various beauties of nature.

"The dress of the Kashmirians consists of a large turban, awkwardly put on; a great woollen vest with wide sleeves; and a sick, wrapped in many folds round the middle; under the vest, which may be properly called a wrapper, the higher class of people wear a pirahun or shirt, and drawers; but the lower order have no under garment, nor do they even gird up their loins. On first seeing these people in their own country, I imagined from their garb, the cast of countenance, which is long and of a grave aspect, and the form of their beards, that I had come amongst a nation of Jews. The same idea impressed also Mr. Bernier, who, carrying it further, has attempted, by the aid of some proofs more specious than substantial, to deduce their origin from the Jewish tribes that were carried into captivity.

"The dress of the women is no less awkward than that of the men, and is ill adapted to display the beauties they naturally possess. Their outward, and often only garment is of cotton, and shaped like a long loose shirt. Over the hair, which falls in a single braid, they wear a close cap, usually of a woollen cloth of a crimson colour; and to the hinder part of it is attached a triangular piece of the same stuff,

which falling on the back conceals much of the hair. Around the lower edge of the cap is rolled a small turban, fastened behind with a short knot, which seemed to me the only artificial ornament about them. You will be pleased to notice, that I speak of the dresses of the ordinary women, such only being permitted to appear in public. The women of the higher classes are never seen abroad; nor is it consistent with the usage of any Mahometan nation even to speak of the female part of a family.

"The Kashmirians are stout, well formed, and, as the natives of a country lying in the thirty-fourth degree of latitude, may be termed a fair people, and their women in southern France or Spain would be called brunettes. But having been prepossessed with an opinion of their charms, I suffered a sensible disappointment; though I saw some of the female dancers most celebrated for beauty and the attractions of their profession. A coarseness of figure generally prevails among them, with broad features, and they too often have thick legs. Though excelling in the colour of their complexion, they are evidently surpassed by the elegant form and pleasing countenance of the women of some of the western provinces of India.

"The city of Kashmir once abounded with courtezans, equally gay and affluent; but the rigorous contributions of the Afghans have greatly reduced their number, and driven most of those that remain into a languid poverty. The few that I saw, afforded me much pleasure by their graceful skill in dancing, and voices peculiarly melodious. And here let me observe, lest I should afterwards forget, that the women of Kashmir are singularly

larly fruitful: be the government ever so oppressive, or fortune at all points adverse, no baneful effects are seen to operate on the propagation of the species, which is maintained with a successful perseverance. I will not presume to investigate the physical cause of a virtue so copiously inherent in the men and women of this country, but will simply intimate to you that its waters are well stored with fish, which is thought to be a generative stimulus, and constitutes a principal article of the food of the people.

“The language of Kashmire evidently springs from the Sanscrit stock, and resembles in sound that of the Mahrattas, though with more harshness, which has probably induced the inhabitants to compose their songs in the Persian, or adopt those of the Persian poets. Yet in despite of the unpleasant tone of their speech, there is scarcely a person in the country, from youth to old age, who has not a taste for music.

“The Kashmirians are gay and lively people, with strong propensities to pleasure. None are more eager in the pursuit of wealth, have more inventive faculties in acquiring it, or who devise more modes of luxurious expence. When a Kashmirian, even of the lowest order, finds himself in the possession of ten shillings, he loses no time in assembling his party, and launching into the lake, solaces himself till the last farthing is spent. Nor can the despotism of an Afghan government, which loads them with a various oppression and cruelty, eradicate this strong tendency to dissipation; yet their manners, it is said, have undergone a manifest change, since the dismemberment of their country from Hindostan. Encouraged by the liberality and indulgence of the Moguls, they gave a

loose to their pleasures and the bent of their genius. They appeared in gay apparel, constructed costly buildings, and were much addicted to the pleasures of the table. The interests of this province were so strongly favoured at the court, that every complaint against its governors was attentively listened to, and any attempt to molest the people, restrained or punished.

“In the reign of Aurungzebe, when the revenue of the different portions of the empire exceeded that of the present day, the sum collected in Kashmire amounted to three and a half lacks of rupees, but at this time, not less than twenty lacks are extracted by the Afghan governor, who, if his tribute be regularly remitted to court, is allowed to execute with impunity every act of violence. This extreme rigour has sensibly affected the deportment and manners of the Kashmirians, who shrink with dread from the Afghan oppressions, and are fearful of making any display of opulence. A Georgian merchant, who had long resided in the country, gave me the most satisfactory information of Kashmire. He said, that when he first visited the province, which was governed by a person of a moderate disposition, the people were licentious, volatile, and profuse. But that, since the administration of the late chief, an Afghan of a fierce and rapacious temper, they had become dispirited, their way of living mean, their dress slovenly, and, though of a temper proverbially loquacious, they were averse from communicating ordinary intelligence.

“During my residence in Kashmire, I often witnessed the harsh treatment which the common people received at the hands of their masters, who rarely issued an order without

without a blow of the side of their hatchet, a common weapon of the Afghans, and used by them in war, as a battle-axe. Though the inhabitants of this province are held under a grievous subjection, and endure evils the most mortifying to human nature, being equally oppressed and insulted, the various testimonies brought home to me of their common depravity of disposition, made me the less sensible of their distress; and in a short time so faint was the trace of it on my mind, that I even judged them worthy of their adverse fortune.

“ In viewing the manners of a people at large, it were at once a sacrifice of truth and every claim to historical merit, to introduce passionate or fanciful colouring; yet the coolest reflection does not withhold me from saying, that I never knew a national body of men more impregnated with the principles of vice, than the natives of Kashmir. The character of a Kashmirian is conspicuously seen when invested with official power. Supported by an authority which prescribes no limits to its agents, in the accumulation of public emoluments, the Kashmirian displays the genuine composition of his mind. He becomes intent on immediate aggrandizement, without rejecting any instrument which can promote his purpose. Rapacious and arrogant, he evinces in all his actions deceit, treachery, and that species of refined cruelty, which usually actuates the conduct of a coward. And it is said, that he is equally fickle in his connections, as implacable in enmity. In behalf of humanity, I could wish not to have been capacitated to exhibit so disgusting a picture, which being constantly held out to me for near three months, in various lights, but

with little relief, impressed me with a general dislike of mankind.

“ The Kashmirians are so whimsically curious, that when any trivial question is proposed to them, its intention and purpose is inquired into with a string of futile interrogatories, before the necessary information is given; and a shopkeeper rarely acknowledges the possession of a commodity, until he is apprised of the quantity required. In examining the situation in which these people have been placed, with its train of relative effects, the speculative moralist will perhaps discover one of the larger sources from whence this cast of manners and disposition has arisen. He will perceive that the singular position of their country, its abundant and valuable produce, with a happy climate, tend to excite strong inclinations to luxury and effeminate pleasures; and he is aware, that to counteract causes, naturally tending to enervate and corrupt the mind, a system of religion or morality is necessary to inculcate the love of virtue, and especially, to impress the youth with early sentiments of justice and humanity. But he will evidently see, that neither the religious nor the moral precepts of the present race of Mahometans contain the principles of rectitude or philanthropy; that, on the contrary, they are taught to look with abhorrence on the fairest portion of the globe, and to persecute and injure those who are not inclosed in the fold of their prophet. Seeing then the Kashmirians, presiding as it were at the fountain head of pleasure, neither guided nor checked by any principle or example of virtue, he will not be surprised, that they give a wide scope to the passions of the mind and the enjoyments of the body.”

ACCOUNT of the NATIVES of TCHOKA ISLAND, and of the EASTERN TARTARS.

[From the second Volume of a VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD, in the Years 1785-8, by J. F. G. DE LA PEROUSE.]

THESE people are very intelligent, respect property, have no distrust, and communicate readily with strangers. They are of a middle size, squat and strongly built, a little inclining to fat, and have the muscles of their bodies well defined. The general stature is five feet; but there are instances of men five feet four inches, though the number is few. They have all a large head, and a broader and rounder face than that of Europeans. Their countenance is lively and agreeable, though destitute, on the whole, of that grace and regularity which are necessary with us to constitute beauty. They have large cheeks, a short nose, rounded at the extremity, and broad nostrils. Their eyes are lively, of a moderate size, and in some instances blue, but for the most part black, with bushy eye-brows. The mouth is of the common size, the voice strong, and the lips, which are rather thick, are of a deep red. We remarked in some, that the middle of the upper lip was painted blue. These features of the face, as well as their eyes, were capable of expressing every sentiment. Their teeth are beautifully white, extremely even, and of the usual number; their chin is round and a little prominent. Their ears, which are small, they perforate, and wear in them glass ornaments and rings of silver.

“The women are smaller than the men, and have a more round and delicate figure; but in the fea-

tures of their faces there is little difference. Their upper lip is entirely tattooed of a blue colour, and they wear their hair long and flowing. Their dress is in nothing different from that of the men. The colour of the skin in both sexes is tawny, and their nails, which they suffer to grow to a considerable length, are a shade darker than those of Europeans. These islanders are extremely hairy, and have long bushy beards, which gives a grave and venerable aspect, particularly to the old men, who appeared to be held in great respect by the younger part of the inhabitants. The hair of the head in general is black, smooth, and moderately strong; but in some it is chestnut; they all wear it round, about six inches long behind, and cut into a brush on the forehead and temples.

“Their dress consists of a kind of cassock or gown, the fore-parts of which wrap over each other, and which is fastened by small buttons or strings, and a girdle placed above the hips. This gown is made of skin, or of quilted nankeen, a stuff which they fabricate of the bark of the willow. It reaches to the calf of the leg, and sometimes lower, and supercedes the necessity of drawers. Some wear seal-skin boots, the foot of which, in form and workmanship, resembles the Chinese shoe; but the majority have no covering either for the feet or the head, a bandage of bear's skin excepted, which a few wear round the

the head, rather as an ornament than a defence, either against the cold or the sun.

“ Like the lower classes of the Chinese, they have all a girdle round the loins, from which they suspend their dagger, as a defence against bears, and several small pockets for their flint and steel, their pipe and tobacco-box, smoking among them being a general practice.

“ Their huts are a sufficient shelter from the rain and inclemencies of the weather, but are very small, in proportion to the number of inhabitants who reside in them. The roof forms two inclined planes, ten or twelve feet high at the point of junction, and three or four on the sides, and its breadth is about fifteen feet, and length eighteen. These huts are constructed of frame-work, strongly joined together, flanked with the bark of trees, and covered on the top with dry grass, disposed in the same manner as the thatch on the cottages of our peasants.

“ In the inside of these houses a square of earth, raised six inches above the ground, and supported on the sides by strong planks, serves as a fire-place. Along the sides, and at the end of the apartment, are benches, twelve or fifteen inches high, and covered with mats, on which they sleep.

“ The utensils employed in cooking consist of an iron pot, porringers made of wood, and of the bark of the birch, of various shapes and workmanship, and they eat their food with small sticks, like the Chinese. They have generally two meals a day, one at noon, and the other in the evening.

“ The habitations on the south of the island are built with more care, the flooring being generally of

planks, and are better furnished. We observed in some of them vessels of Japan porcelain, which the great value set on them by the owners led me to believe were not to be procured without considerable trouble and expense. They cultivate no vegetable productions, but live on dried or smoked fish, and a little game, the produce of the chase. Each family has its own canoe, and its separate implements for hunting and fishing. Their arms are bows, javelins, and a kind of lance, which they use chiefly in bear-hunting. By the side of their huts are store-houses, in which they prepare and collect, during summer, their provision for the winter. It consists of dried fish, a large quantity of garlic and wild celery, angelica, a bulbous root, which they call *apè*, but known also under the name of the yellow lily of Kamtschatka, together with fish oil, which they preserve in the stomachs of the large animals they have killed in the chase. These store-houses are constructed of planks, strongly and closely joined together, and raised upon stakes about four feet from the ground.

“ Dogs are the only domestic animals which we saw among the natives of Tchoka. They are of a middling size, have shaggy hair, ears that stand erect, and a long muzzle: their cry is loud but not savage.

“ These islanders, of all the uncivilised tribes that we visited, if indeed they can with propriety be called uncivilised, are the only people among whom we observed weaving looms. Those which they employ, though so small as to be easily portable, are very complete in their construction.

“ They use also a spindle to prepare thread with the hair of animals,

mals, the bark of the willow, and the great nettle, of which they manufacture their stuffs.

" These people, who are of an extremely mild and unsuspicious character, appear to have commercial intercourse with the Chinese, by means of the Mantchou Tartars; with the Russians, from the northern part of their island; and with the Japanese from the southern part; but the articles of this commerce are of little importance, consisting merely of a few furs and some whale oil. This fish is caught only at the southern extremity of the island, and their method of extracting the oil is by no means economical: they drag the whale on shore where the ground is sloping, and, having suffered it to putrefy, receive in a trench at the bottom of the declivity, the oil which distils from the body, and which runs along small channels made for the purpose.

" This island, called Tchoka by its inhabitants, Oku-Jesso by the Japanese, and by the Russians, who are acquainted only with the northern part of it, Sagaleen Island, comprehends, in its longest diameter, the whole space between the 46th and 54th parallels.

" It is every where covered with wood, and mountainous towards the centre; but is flat towards the sea-coast, where the soil appears to be well adapted for agriculture. The vegetation is extremely luxuriant, and the forests abound with a variety of trees, such as the pine, willow, oak, and birch. The sea around supplies it with plenty of fish; and the rivers and brooks teem with salmon and trout of an excellent quality.

" During our stay at this island, the weather was mild, but extremely foggy: all the inhabitants, how-

ever, have an appearance of health and strength, which they enjoy even to a very advanced period of life; and I observed no signs among them of a defective conformation, nor the least trace of contagious, eruptive, or indeed any disease.

" After paying several visits to the natives of this island, which is separated from the coast of Tartary by a channel forming, as we supposed, a communication between the seas of Japan and Okhotsk, we continued our course to the north; but the water having gradually diminished in depth, through the whole breadth of the channel, till we had no more than six fathoms, M. de la Pérouse thought it expedient, for the safety of the ships, to return to the southward, since to reach Kamtschatka through this channel was evidently impossible. The continuance of the fogs, however, and the obstinacy of the southerly winds, which, for four months, had almost constantly prevailed, rendered our situation critical in the extreme, and this enterprise both tedious and painful.

" The wood and water with which we had provided ourselves at Manilla, being nearly consumed, our commodore sought for an opportunity to procure a fresh supply of these articles, before he attempted any thing new.

" The weather having cleared up, on the 27th of July, 1787, we were enabled to explore a large bay, in which we anchored, as it seemed likely to afford us a safe retreat from storms, and the means of providing ourselves with the necessaries of which we stood in need, in order to continue our voyage. This bay is situated on the Tartarian coast, in 51° 29' of latitude north, and 139° 41' of longitude east; and we gave it the name of Baie de Castries.

" The

“ The country is mountainous, and so closely covered with wood, from the luxuriance of vegetation, that the whole coast appears to form an immense forest.

“ Its inhabitants, the only people we had met with on this coast, since our departure from Corea, were established at the bottom of the bay, near the mouth of a small river, abounding in fish.

“ They are mild, affable, and, like the islanders of Tchoka, have no distrust of strangers: they are also scrupulously honest, and show little curiosity or desire to obtain even those articles which would be of the greatest advantage to them.

“ In saluting they bend the body forward, and when desirous of paying more than ordinary respect, they kneel, and bow the head so low as nearly to touch the ground.

“ The external organisation of these people exhibits little regularity; and seems to have no analogy with that of their neighbours of the island of Tchoka, who are separated from them only by a channel, in this part ten or twelve leagues in breadth.

“ These Tartars are inferior to the natives of Tchoka in height as well as strength, and their features are less regular and agreeable. Their complexion is not so dark, and those parts of the skin usually covered are even tolerably white. The hair of the head too is less thick, and on the chin and upper lip they have very little beard, whereas the islanders of Tchoka, as we observed before, are of a strong muscular make, and have more hair on their bodies than even Europeans. These differences in the constitution of the two people seem to indicate an essential difference of species; though they live under the same climate, and their manners

and modes of life are analogous, or, at least, nearly so.

“ The women are ugly, and possess very little of that characteristic mildness of feature, which in general distinguishes the sex. They have a flat face, small round eyes, broad and high cheeks, a large head, well-shaped neck, and the extremities of the body small, but finely proportioned.

“ The general height of the men is about four feet nine or ten inches. The head is uncommonly large in proportion to the rest of the body; the face flat and almost square; the forehead small, round, and a little depressed backwards; the eyebrows, which are faintly marked, are of a black or chestnut colour, as is also the hair; the eyes are small and level with the face; the eye-lids are so little divided, that when open they are stretched at the corners; the nose is short, and so flat at the root as to be hardly perceptible; the cheeks are large and swelled out, the mouth wide, the lips thick and of a dull red, the teeth small and even, but very subject to decay, the chin nearly flat, the extremities of the body small, and the muscles scarcely apparent. This disproportion of parts excludes elegance of form, as well as delicacy of features, and these people therefore are the ugliest and most mean-looking race I have seen in either hemisphere.

“ Although these Tartars, and the natives of Tchoka, have both arrived at a tolerable degree of civilisation and politeness, they are unacquainted with agriculture, and live in a most filthy manner. During the season of summer their principal food is fresh fish, and in winter, fish that has been smoked, or dried on wooden frames, not unlike those of our tenter-grounds.

The method in which they prepare their fish is as follows: they first cut off the head, then gut them, take out the bones, hang the fish up to dry, and afterwards collect them into heaps, and preserve them in store-houses, similar to those of the island of Tchoka.

“ Their implements for fishing are the hook and line, nets, and a kind of spear headed with iron.

“ They have two regular meals a day, of which the whole family partake in common, one about noon, and the other at sun-set. Their domestic utensils, and method of cooking, are similar to those of the natives of Tchoka; and they procure these utensils, with other articles, from Mantchou Tartary and Japan.

“ The avidity with which they devoured the raw skin of fresh fish, as well as the cartilaginous parts of the head, particularly astonished us. These, with train oil, appear to be considered by them as their greatest dainties.

“ Both the men and women have a kind of loose dress, nearly similar to a carter’s frock,* reaching to the calf of the leg, and fastened before with copper buttons. This garment is in no respect different from that of the inhabitants of Tchoka: it is made sometimes of fish-skin, sometimes of nankeen, and in winter of fur: and those of the women are ornamented at the bottom with regular rows of flat pieces of copper. They all wear alike a kind of drawers or breeches, made in the Chinese manner, and short boots like those of the inhabitants of Tchoka; and have beside a ring either of horn or metal on the thumb, and trinkets suspended from the ears and nostrils.

“ I observed among them no chiefs, but the heads of families. Their only domestic animals are

dogs, of the same kind as those of Tchoka, which they employ in winter to draw their sledges.

“ The custom so prevalent among other tribes of this hemisphere, of offering to strangers the use of their women, is not practised by these people. On the contrary, they appear to be held in great estimation by their husbands, and their occupations are confined to the management of their domestic concerns, of which the care of the children, and cooking, constitute the principal objects.

“ The umbilical cord is tied in the same manner as with us, immediately upon the birth of the child; and the child is then swathed, according to the mode practised by the Americans. When disposed to sleep, it is placed in a basket, or sort of cradle, made of wood, or the bark of the birch.

“ From the severity of the climate these Tartars are obliged to have both summer and winter habitations, the form and internal arrangements of which are scarcely different from those already described in the island of Tchoka. Their winter habitations are remarkable only for being sunk about four feet in the earth, and for having a kind of porch before the entrance. Hard and wretched as is their manner of living, these Tartars appeared, notwithstanding, to enjoy while young a tolerable share of health; but as they advance in life they are subject to inflammations of the *tunica conjunctiva*, which are common among them, as well as to blindness. That these disorders are so frequent, is owing probably to general causes, such as the dazzling whiteness of the snow, which covers the ground for more than half the year, and the constant irritation produced in the organs of sight by the smoke, with
which

which their huts are continually filled, and to which they are obliged to retire in winter from the cold, and in summer from the mosquitoes, that in these northern regions are extremely numerous.

"Though their manner of life is filthy in the extreme, cutaneous disorders are very rare among these people. I saw only two or three slight instances of rash, and a child six years of age who had the tinea: and as to bodily conformation, I observed among them no defect, nor any trace either of the small-pox or of the venereal disease.

"The occupations of both sexes, their implements for fishing and hunting, and their canoes, are very little different from those of the inhabitants of Tchoka; but the weakness of their physical faculties

must render them incapable of supporting the same labour and fatigue as the latter, who are a people far more robust.

"All these different tribes appear to have the utmost veneration for their dead, and employ their whole industry to bestow on them an honourable sepulture. They are interred with their clothes on, and the arms and implements which they used when alive are buried with them. The body is deposited in a coffin, made of boards, and of the same form as ours, the extremities of which are ornamented with small pieces of silk stuff, either plain, or embroidered in gold and silver. The coffin is then enclosed in a tomb, raised about four feet from the ground, and constructed of strong planks or boards."

INTERESTING ACCOUNT of the CHARACTER and POLITICAL STATE of the MODERN GREEKS.

[From a SURVEY of the TURKISH EMPIRE, &c. by W. ETON, Esq.]

"CONQUERED Greece polished Rome, but the conquerors were Romans. Conquered Greece did not polish Turkey, for the conquerors were Turks. The insensibility of these barbarians is astonishing: living amid the effulgence of genius, they have not caught one spark; they gaze with unfeeling stupidity on the wonder and boast of art, on their glorious monuments, on their temples, and conclude they were built by genii, and then destroy them, to burn the marble for lime to make stucco for their own tasteless houses, whence the fine arts are banished; where ignorance, tyranny, superstition, and gross sensuality only dwell in sad and stupidly-solemn pomp, or issuing out with savage fury, lay waste the country round, and imbrue

their hands in the blood of the helpless, murdering without remorse those they have conquered. Thus the finest countries in the world are become deserts; part inhabited by savage beasts, and part by more savage men: the poor aborigines skulking in hiding places like the timid hare (which epithet the Turks give them in derision), while those beasts of prey roam abroad.

"Every object moral and physical, the fair face of nature and the intellectual energies of the inhabitants, have alike been blasted and defiled by the harpy-touch of Turkish tyranny. As an instance of those changes which the country has undergone, we need only consider the island of Cyprus, now an almost uninhabited desert, which was, not only in ancient times, but

when it was taken by the Turks from the Venetians, populous and exceedingly rich. The gentry lived like princes in splendor, and even the peasants had each of them at least a silver cup, spoon, knife, and fork. The number and excellency of its productions were wonderful. At present only a little cotton, some silk and wine, and a few drugs, are its produce, all to no great amount. Even the salines (or salt-works) which were so great a branch of revenue and commerce to the Venetians, have produced nothing since the Turks possessed it.

“Of the defects of the Grecian character some are doubtless owing to their ancient corruptions; but most of them take their rise in the humiliating state of depression in which they are held by the Turks. This degradation and servility of their situation has operated for centuries, and has consequently produced an accumulated effect on the mind; but were this weight taken off, the elasticity and vigour of the soul would have wide room for expansion; and though it cannot be expected that they would at once rise to the proud animation of their former heroes, they would doubtless display energies of mind, which the iron hand of despotism has long kept dormant and inert. It is rather astonishing that they have retained so much energy of character, and are not more abased, for like noble couriers they champ the bit, and spurn indignantly the yoke; when once freed from these, they will enter the course of glory. The truth of these observations will appear, whether we consider the Greeks in their common character as one people, or whether we consider them according to their local and peculiar distinctions.

“When we view the Greeks in their more comprehensive character

as a nation, their superiority over the Turks in knowledge is surprisingly great; they possess a great degree of genius and invention, and are of so lively an imagination, that they cannot tell the same story twice without varying the embellishments of circumstance and diction; added to this, both men and women speak much, and with wonderful volubility and boldness, and no people are such natural orators; numbers of them speak Italian, but all have an activity and sprightliness which strongly contrasts with the stupid and pompous gravity of the Turks; an European feels himself as it were at home with them, and amongst creatures of his own species, for with Mahomedans there is a distance, a non-assimilation, a total difference of ideas, and the more he knows their language the more he perceives it; on the contrary, the more intimately he knows the Greeks, the more similar does he find them in habits and manners to other Europeans: their bad reputation is more owing to the slander of the French (their mortal enemies) than to so great a degree of demerit. In general, they are an agreeable and a serviceable people, but they are much given to levity, immoderately ambitious, and fond of honourable distinctions; but this very ambition, now a weakness, when they have nobler objects to pursue, will lead them to greatness.

“From the account given by Tott (vol. i. p. 118.) of the disturbances excited by the patriarch Kirilo, it would appear that the Greek have not yet entirely abandoned that spirit of superstition and bigotry, which was, perhaps, the main cause of their former downfall.

“It must be observed, however, that these disputes are not so much fostered upon themselves, as they are

are owing to the efforts of the Latin church, which was the case in the instance alluded to, where the foundation of the contest was a bull of the pope, directed against the Greek church.

"They bear the Turkish yoke with greater impatience than other Christians (who have long ceased to struggle against it), and possess a spirit of enterprize which, however ridiculed by some authors, often prompts them to noble achievements. Their ancient empire is fresh in their memory; it is the subject of their popular songs, and they speak of it in common conversation as a recent event.

"That they possess a firm and manly courage, notwithstanding the insinuations of their calumniators, has been too often testified to be in the least doubtful: the instances which they have displayed in the Russian service have been truly striking. They are passionate, and sometimes given to assassination; but, except in Zante and Cephalonia, the stiletto is not so frequent with them as with the Italians, whom they in general resemble, the best of them, if we add more energy, being very similar in character to the Venetians, and the worst to the Genoese.

"The most observable difference in the Grecian character is between those of Constantinople and their countrymen of the islands. The merchants and lower orders of the Constantinopolitan Greeks have indeed no very marked character; they are much the same as the trading Christians in all parts of the empire, that is to say, as crafty and fraudulent as the Jews, but less so than the Armenians, who are the most subtle of all usurers.

"But there is (in a suburb called the Fenal) a race of Greeks

who called themselves nobles, and affect to despise those of the islands; they are certain opulent families, from which are generally appointed the drogomans of the porte, and the waywodes of Walachia and Moldavia. They have kept these places amongst them, as they are mostly allied together, and keep up a constant connection with the officers of the porte. They are continually intriguing to get those in office removed, and obtain their places; even children cabal against their fathers, and brothers against brothers. They are all people of very good education, and are polite, but haughty, vain, and ambitious to a most ridiculous degree, considering the contempt they are treated with by the Turks. As to their noble extraction, it is a matter of great uncertainty; most of them bear the names of those families which were illustrious when the Turks took Constantinople, but they would find it difficult to prove their descent. They have in general all the vices of the Turks of the seraglio; treachery, ingratitude, cruelty, and intrigue, which stops at no means. While they are drogomans of the porte, they are obliged to behave with great caution and prudence, but when they become waywodes, they are in nothing different from Turkish pashas in tyranny; nor is it to be wondered at, when men are obliged to look up not only to tyrants, but to the very servants of tyrants, for honour and consequence; to flatter their ignorance and stupidity, their foibles and their vices, and to tremble for their lives at their frowns, that cunning takes the place of wisdom, vice of virtue, and treachery of fortitude. In such a situation the mind must lose its vigour, the heart its generosity: the abasement of man by such

such causes was never more strongly exemplified than in the instance of the Greeks of the *Fenal*; they do not weep over the ruins which they cannot restore, nor sigh to rear others of equal magnificence.

“ Strange as is the infatuation which induces these Greeks to aim at the post of waywodes, it is perhaps no less astonishing than many examples which daily occur in other nations of the power of ambition. Though styling themselves noble, and affecting a superiority over the other Greeks, they are the only part of their nation who have totally relinquished the ancient Grecian spirit; they seem not anxious, as the islanders are, for liberty, but delight in their false magnificence, and in the petty intrigues of the *feraglio*; and their pride is to appear in their dress like Turks; and yet the situation which they are thus eager to obtain is beset with perils, and scarcely one who holds it escapes deposition and punishment. No sooner is a waywode appointed, than he sets out in great state for his government, attended by a crowd of relations and dependents, for all of whom, as well as for his own splendor, he must provide by oppressing the unhappy subjects of his tyranny. Meanwhile his countrymen at Constantinople are engaged in continual plots for his removal, and it becomes necessary for him to accumulate a large sum to bribe the ministers and others on his return, and to avert the persecution, which continues for years afterward to hang over him.

“ Those of Macedonia, &c. are robust, courageous, and somewhat ferocious; those of Athens and Attica are still remarkably witty and sharp; all the islanders are lively and gay, fond of singing and dancing to an excess, affable, hospitable, and good natured; in short,

they are the best; those of the *Morea* are much given to piracy; but it is not to be wondered at, considering the cruel treatment they have met with, and the struggles they are continually making against the Turks. Albania, Epirus, and in general the mountaineers, are a very warlike brave people, but very savage, and make little scruple of killing and robbing travellers; a Turk cannot venture in their country alone; there is no man in the country but would make a merit of shooting him—and is this to be wondered at?

“ The Greeks of Zante and Cephalonia, subject to the Venetians, are famous for stabbing with knives.

“ In some islands the people are not handsome. In *Metalline*, the women are remarkable for very large breasts. In *Tino*, the women are almost all beauties, and there the true antique head is to be found.

“ In general, the people of the islands have grand and noble features. From different faces you may put together, in walking through a market-place, the heads of *Apollo* and of the finest ancient statues.

“ It is scarcely possible for any person not to be mistaken in judging of the conduct of the porte towards its provinces, by any analogy from the political operations of other European nations. Amongst us, the unsuccessful revolt of a whole province would indeed give birth to some additional rigour, and to some striking example of punishment: but the ferocious Turk proposes nothing short of extermination, in order to free himself from the fear of future defection. It was thus that, when the inhabitants of the *Morea*, who, instigated by the desire of liberty, had taken up arms in favour of the Russians, returned again under their yoke, a deliberate proposal was made in the *divan* to

slughter

slaughter them in cold blood; nor was this the first time that the massacre of all the Greeks had been seriously debated; it was however, in the present instance, successfully opposed by Gazi Hassan, both on motives of humanity and policy*.

"It has been said, that long possession of a country gives an indisputable right of dominion, and that the right of the Turks to their possessions has been acknowledged by all nations in their treaties. As to treaties between the Turks and other nations, who had no right to dispose of the countries usurped by the Turks, they cannot be binding on the Greeks, who never signed such treaties, nor were consulted, or consented to their signing.

"When one nation conquers another, and they become incorporated, by having the same rights, the same religion, the same language, and by being blended together by inter-marriages, a long series of years renders them one people. Who can in England distinguish the aborigines from the Romans, Saxons, Danes, Normans, and other foreigners? They are all Englishmen.

"The Greeks were conquered by the Turks, but they were attacked (like all other nations they conquered) by them without provocation. It was not a war for injury or insult, for jealousy of power, or the support of an ally, contests which ought to end when satisfaction or submission is obtained; it was a war, having for its aim conquest, and for its principle a right to the dominion of the whole earth;

a war which asserted that all other sovereigns were usurpers, and that the deposing and putting them to death was a sacred duty. Do the laws of nations establish that such a conquest gives right of possession? They, on the contrary, declare such conquest usurpation.

"The conquered were never admitted by the Turks to the rights of citizens or fellow subjects, unless they abjured their religion and their country; they became slaves, and as, according to their cowardly law, the Turks have a right at all times to put to death their prisoners, the conquered and their posterity for ever are obliged annually to *redeem their heads*, by paying the price set on them: they are excluded from all offices in the state. It is death for a conquered Greek to marry a Turkish woman, or even to cohabit with a common prostitute of that nation; they are in every respect treated as enemies: they are still called and distinguished by the name of their nation, and a Turk is never called a Greek, though his family should have been settled for generations in that country. The testimony of a Greek is not valid in a court of judicature, when contrasted with that of a Turk. They are distinguished by a different dress; it is death to wear the same apparel as a Turk; even their houses are painted of a different colour; in fine, they are in the same situation they were the day they were conquered; totally distinct as a nation; and they have, therefore, the same right now as they then had, to free themselves

* The chief argument which he used, and which alone carried conviction to his hearers, was, *if we kill all the Greeks, we shall lose all the capitulation they pay.*

Even without such a provocation, Ishtan Mustafa, predecessor and brother of Abdulhamid, on his accession to the throne, proposed to cut off all the Christians in the empire, and was with difficulty persuaded to desist. Is this a nation which merits that Britain should enter into a war for its defence!

from the barbarous usurpers of their country, whose conduct to all the nations they have conquered merits the eternal execration of mankind.

"In the war between Russia and Turkey, which continued from 1769 to 1774, where-ever the Russians appeared the Greeks took up arms and joined them. The history of this war, and the part which the Greeks took in it, is too well known for it to be necessary that I should enter here into any particulars. The progress that was made against the Turks was very considerable, and their fleet being destroyed at Chishmé, the capital might have been attacked by the victorious Russians. Had the Russian admiral been a man of any experience, or of an enterprising character, that war must have terminated in the expulsion of the Turks from Europe.

"Nothing can place the Turks in a more despicable light, than the progress the Russians did make, notwithstanding the slowness of all their motions, their never profiting of any advantage, the opportunities they lost of striking decisive blows, the want of plan or combination in every enterprise, and the unmilitary conduct in the execution; the bravery of their troops indeed, when there was a possibility of success, always secured their victory. The Russians and Greeks, to this day, make reproaches to each other of misconduct; but as the accounts hitherto published are taken from the relation of Russians, we may safely conclude that justice has not been done to the Greeks. In this last war, when they acted alone, they fought like true descendants of their heroic ancestors in the little diversion they made.

"It was solemnly stipulated in

the 17th article of the peace of Kainarji (signed 29 July, 1774) that 'The empire of Russia restores to the sublime porte all the islands of the Archipelago, which are under its dependence; and the sublime porte, on its part, promises, 1st. To observe sacredly with respect to the inhabitants of these islands, the conditions stipulated in the first article, concerning a general amnesty and eternal oblivion of all crime whatever, committed or suspected, to the prejudice of the sublime porte, &c."

"Notwithstanding this solemn engagement, the Turks, almost as soon as the Russians had evacuated their conquests, and, relying on the faith of treaties, had delivered up the inhabitants to their domination, fell upon their victims, unprepared to resist them, and massacred an incredible number, particularly in the Morea, where their vengeance fell with all its weight. Whole districts were left without a single inhabitant, and this fine country is now almost a desert. The Greeks upbraid the Russians with abandoning them; the Russians answer they relied on the faith of treaties. They ought to have known, that the fetwa of the musti had often announced, that *no faith is to be kept with Christians*; history furnishes them with numerous instances of their putting in practice this precept; indeed I know of no instance when they have not, if it appeared to them that it was their interest to do; and yet we find writers who vaunt the scrupulousness of the Turks in observing their treaties: they should always have added *when it was their interest*, and their statement would have been just.

"So ardent was the wish of the Greeks to regain their liberty and inde

independence, that, neither discouraged by the abandonment of the Russians, nor deterred by the apprehension of again incurring the dreadful vengeance of the Turks, as soon as a fresh war broke out between those powers they again took up arms.

“ A fleet was fitted out at Cronstad, and sailed for the Archipelago, under the command of a brave, prudent, and experienced officer, admiral Greig, an Englishman, who had served in the former war, and greatly distinguished himself under count Orlov; who, from an officer in the guards, where he saw no other *honourable* service than quelling a riot at a brandy shop, was raised to the supreme command of a fleet and an army, and entrusted with an expedition which required the greatest experience and talents. The king of Sweden rendered to the empress the essential service of detaining her fleet in the Baltic, by attacking it in that sea, and thereby putting into her hand the naval superiority which, by its absence, would have passed into his. This ill-timed diversion of the king of Sweden retarded the fate of Turkey, and the interference of other courts saved it for this time; at least they obliged the empress to make peace; but that peace would have been but of a few months’ duration, had not the death of prince Potemkin and some other circumstances intervened, which shall be spoken of in this place.

“ In the mean time the empress sent manifestoes to all parts of Greece, as she had done in the former war, inviting the inhabitants ‘ to take up arms, and co-operate with her in expelling the enemies of Christianity from the countries they had usurped, and regaining them their ancient liberty and national independence.’

“ A Greek, of the name of Sotiri, was sent to Epirus and Albania, to distribute manifestoes, and combine an insurrection with the chiefs. An army was soon raised; their head quarters were at Sulli. They marched against the pasha of Yánina (Janina) and completely defeated his army in a pitched battle, in which his son was killed, and despoiled of his rich armour, which they sent to the empress.

“ They collected a sum of money by voluntary subscription of individuals, and fitted out at Trieste an armament of twelve small ships, under the command of Lambro Canziani, a Greek, with which they sailed to the Archipelago. They were every where victorious, and the impression was so great and alarming to the porte, that it had nearly drawn the whole Turkish navy out of the Black Sea, and left the capital exposed to the attack of a formidable Russian fleet, then in the ports of the Crim.

“ The empress had sent a captain Psaro to Sicily, to establish magazines for the fleet coming out under admiral Greig, and several other persons, to furnish the Greeks with money and ammunition, and to remove the difficulties the Venetians, still unwilling to offend the porte, had thrown in their way, and the obstructions they had put to their communication by means of their port Prevasi, the nearest to Sulli. In this state of things the Greeks sent three deputies to St. Petersburg, with complaints against the persons commissioned to this service by the empress. They presented the rich armour of the pasha of Yanina’s son to her imperial majesty; but were prevented, by the intrigues of those who feared an inquiry into their scandalous peculations, for several months from presenting their petition, and explain-
ing

ing the business of their mission; at length they succeeded in obtaining a private audience of the empress, to which they were conducted by Mr. Zoubov, the favourite. They presented a memorial in Greek, with a translation in French, of which the following is an English translation:

“ Madam,

“ It was not until we had long solicited in vain your imperial majesty’s ministers for an answer to the memorial, which we had the honour of presenting to them; it was not until, driven to the utmost despair by the reflection of the dreadful evils which this delay might produce to our countrymen, who (invited by the manifestoes of your imperial majesty) have taken arms against the enemy of the Christian name, and deputed us to lay the offer of their lives and their fortunes at the foot of your imperial throne; it was not till we had lost all hopes of otherwise obtaining a speedy answer to stop those streams of the blood of our brethren, which doubtless flow already through this delay, that we have at length dared to prostrate ourselves at your feet, and to present our humble memorial to your imperial majesty in person.

“ Another duty equally sacred, and which was a principal object of our mission, induced us to take this daring step: it was to undeceive Y. I. M. whom (as well as your ministers) there have been people audacious enough to mislead. We have learned with indignation, that the chevalier Psaro now erects himself into a chief and conductor of our people; a man abhorred by our nation, out of the dregs of which he rose, and where he would have remained, if he had not, with an unheard-of audaciousness deceived your imperial majesty’s ministers,

and assumed a reputation by attributing to himself exploits he never performed. If no ill consequences would ensue but to himself, we should patiently await his appearance in our country, a boast however which he never will perform but in his writings. How he has acted towards us Y. I. M. will see in our memorial. We hear that he has received immense sums, which he pretends to have expended for us. We assure Y. I. M. that neither he, nor any of your officers sent to us, ever paid us a single rouble. The flotilla, and the other armaments of Lambro, were equipped at our own expence. One of us (deputies) abandoning his peaceful home, fitted out two vessels at his own expence, and expended in armaments 12,000 zechins, whilst the Turks massacred his mother and his brother, levelled with the ground his possessions, and desolated his lands.

“ We never asked for your treasures; we do not ask for them now; we only ask for powder and balls (which we cannot purchase), and to be led to battle. We are come to offer our lives and fortunes, not to ask for your treasures.

“ Deign, O great empress! Glory of the Greek faith! deign to read our memorial. Heaven has reserved our deliverance for the glorious reign of Y. I. M. It is under your auspices that we hope to deliver from the hands of barbarous Mahomedans our empire, which they have usurped, and our patriarchat and our holy religion, which they have insulted; to free the descendants of Athens and Lacedemon from the tyrannic yoke of ignorant savages, under which groans a nation whose genius is not extinguished; a nation which glows with the love of liberty; which the iron yoke of barbarism has not vilified;

lified; which has constantly before its eyes the images of its ancient heroes, and whose example animates its warriors even to this day.

“ Our superb ruins speak to our eyes, and tell us of our ancient grandeur; our innumerable ports, our beautiful country, the heavens which smile on us all the year, the ardour of our youth, and even of our decrepid elders, tell us that nature is not less propitious to us than it was to our fore-fathers. Give us for a sovereign your grandson Constantine: it is the wish of our nation (the family of our emperors is extinct), and we shall become what our ancestors were.

“ We are not persons who have dared to impose on the *most magnanimous of sovereigns*: we are the deputies of the people of Greece, furnished with full powers and other documents, and as such prostrated before the throne of Her, whom, next to God, we look on as our saviour; we declare that we shall be till our latest breath,

your imperial majesty's
most faithful and most
devoted servants,

(L. S.) PANO KIRI.

(L. S.) CHRISTO LAZZOTTI.

(L. S.) NICCOLO PANGOLO.

St. Petersburg,

April, 1790.

“ As these people are out of the reach of Turkish vengeance, I have not scrupled naming them.

“ The empress received them very graciously, and promised them the assistance they asked. They were then conducted to the apartments of her grandsons, and offering to kiss the hand of the eldest grand duke, Alexander, he pointed to his brother Constantine, telling them, it was to him that they were to address themselves; they represented to him in Greek the object

of their mission, and concluded by doing homage to him as their emperor (*Βασιλεὺς τῶν Ἑλλήνων*.) He answered them in the same language, ‘ Go, and let every thing be according to your wishes.’

“ With this memorial they presented a plan of operation, from which I shall extract only a few particulars:—They proposed, after the empress had furnished them with cannon, and enabled them to augment the squadron under Lambro Canziani, and sent them engineers to conduct the siege of strong places, to begin their first operations by marching from Sulli, where the congress was held, and whence they had a correspondence with all Greece.—Their route was to be first to Livadia and to Athens, dividing into two corps. In their march they were to be joined at appointed places by troops from the Morea and Negroponte. To this island the fleet of Lambro was to sail. They were then to proceed in one body to Thessalia and to the city of Salonichi, where they would receive large reinforcements from Macedonia. The whole army being then assembled, they were to march to the plains of Adrianople, with (as they calculated) three hundred thousand men, to meet the Russians, and proceed to Constantinople, where they hoped the Russian fleet would be arrived from the Crim; if not, they esteemed their own force sufficient to take that city, and drive the Turks out of Europe and their islands.

“ In this plan the establishment and the disposition of magazines, and retreats in cases of disaster, were provided for. The force of the Turks in different parts, and the different movements to oppose them, were calculated. All their resources, and the amount of the troops

troops each place had engaged to furnish, were plainly stated, as well as the means they had adopted to carry on a secret correspondence with all parts of the country, both with respect to their own allies and the movements of the Turks. To enter more into particulars would not be justifiable in me.

"The empress sent them to the army in Moldavia, to prince Potemkin, giving them 1,000 ducats for their journey thither. They left Peterburgh the $\frac{13}{24}$ May 1790. In August they were sent to Greece by the way of Vienna, and major general Tamara with them, to superintend the whole expedition, and furnish them with the assistance they required.

"It merits attention, that the king of Prussia had posted an army of 150,000 men, in June 1790, on the frontier of Bohemia; that the convention of Reichenbach was signed the 27th of July. The sentiments of the court of London respecting the war, and its probable interference in as serious a way as Prussia had done, were known at St. Petersburg. It is to these circumstances we must attribute the slowness with which the projects of the Greeks were seconded. They were assured that they should have every succour they required, and much more: money was sent, but not much of it disbursed; they were enjoined to prepare every thing, but to undertake nothing, till the proper moment should arrive for their acting, which, they were told, depended on many circumstances of which they were ignorant. Lambro in the mean time acted by himself, but could undertake nothing of any consequence. Things remained thus till after the campaign was ended, and prince Potemkin came to St. Petersburg.

"The fate of the armament commanded by the gallant Lambro deserves to be mentioned.

"The Greeks proved on this occasion their love of liberty, their passion for glory, and a perseverance in toils, obedience to discipline, and contempt of danger and death, worthy of the brightest pages of their history; they fought with, and conquered very superior numbers; and when at last they were attacked with an inequality of force, as great as Leonidas had to encounter, they fought till their whole fleet was sunk, and a few only saved themselves in boats.

"Lambro had only resources left to fit out one single ship; the news of a peace arrived; but boiling with indignation at the neglect he had experienced from the Russian agents, and thirsting for revenge, he sailed notwithstanding, and attacked and destroyed several Turkish vessels: he was declared a pirate, and disavowed by Russia—but he was not intimidated—at length he was again overpowered; he disdained to strike; his vessel sunk under him, and he again escaped in his boat, and took refuge in the mountains of Albania.

"The conduct of the Russian agents to him was the most scandalous. The peculation of all those entrusted at a distance with the empress's money was become so glaring and common, that they looked on it as their own property. Lambro was suffered to be imprisoned for debts contracted for his armaments, and was only released by the contributions of his countrymen.

"In the spring of 1791, an armament was prepared in England to sail for the Baltic, to force the empress to make peace. The king of Prussia was ready to co-operate

by

by land. Instead of the fleet, Mr. Fawkener arrived at Peterburgh. It was still undetermined by the empress, whether she should brave England and Prussia (though from the turn affairs had taken in England, and the arrival of another ambassador, she was assured she had little to fear from our fleet, and consequently, little from the Prussian army), or make peace with the Turks on the conditions she had consented to, when she was more seriously alarmed.

"In this uncertainty a courier was kept ready to depart with instructions to general Tamara. The king's envoy was informed of this circumstance, and would have learnt immediately the contents of the dispatch, which would have made him acquainted with the empress's resolution respecting the prosecution of the war, or consenting to peace. The courier, however, was not dispatched. The business was terminated with the king's joint envoys. Prince Potemkin departed for the army, and on his road learnt the victory gained by Repnin over the vizir's army, and the signing the preliminaries of peace. Secret orders had been sent to Repnin, as soon as the empress had resolved to conclude a peace, which he fortunately executed; and it is certain that he received a copy of the arrangement made with the king's ministers, before he signed the preliminaries. Impediments were thrown in the way of the departure of the messenger dispatched to Constantinople, so that he did not arrive till any interference of our ambassador could be of no effect.

"It is plainly to be seen, that though the empress pretended she had of her own accord (and before the arrangement with his majesty

was known to her general) concluded a peace, the interference of his majesty in bringing about that event had a weighty effect.

"When the news of the signing the preliminaries reached the Russian fleet, it had beaten the Turks in the Black Sea, and was pursuing them into the channel of Constantinople, where they must inevitably have been destroyed. Had the Russian admiral been a man of more experience, they might all have been taken in the engagement.

"Thus ended a war, which, had it not been for the interference of Great Britain and Prussia, would have placed the empress's grandson on the throne of Constantinople; and, had not circumstances imperiously prescribed to them the part they acted, we should have had, in Russia and Greece, allies which would, long ago, have enabled his majesty and the emperor, in all human probability, to have humbled a foe, which now threatens all Europe with total subversion, and even to become the instrument of emancipating Greece from the Turkish tyranny, not to become an independent people, but to be oppressed by a worse tyranny, under the name of liberty.

"The Suliotes still maintain their independence: they were often attacked by the Turks, but were as often successful; they fought seventeen battles or skirmishes, the last of which had nearly been fatal to them, as appears by the following paper, communicated to me by a drogoman, now in the British service, which will throw much light on the character of the inhabitants of Epirus; and it contains, besides, very curious and interesting matter. The authenticity of what he relates cannot be called in question, as it very exactly

ly agrees with every other account I have received.

"In 1792, being in the French service as interpreter, I was sent from Salonico by the French consul, Mr. Cosenery, on some business regarding the consulship, to Ali Pasha, at Yanina, the capital of Epirus. I arrived there the 1st of May, and found the pasha making great preparations for war. I found also there the French consul of Prevesa, Mr. de la Sala (a descendant of the Salas, who betrayed the Morea to the Turks, when in the possession of the Venetians) and acting as commissary, not only to provide timber in Epirus for the French navy, but also for revolutionizing that country.

"He communicated to me his commission, insinuating, that if I would assist him, I might expect great rewards. One day, when we were with Ali Pasha, our conversation turned upon the French revolution, which was always introduced with a view to excite him to throw off all obedience to the porte. The pasha said to us—"You will see that Ali Pasha, the successor of Piro (Pyrrhus) will surpass him in every kind of enterprise."

"The pasha continued to assemble troops without making known his intentions. In July, his army consisted of 20,000 good Turkish soldiers, who were the more formidable, as they were all Albanians. He then declared, that his design was to attack the Mahomedan town of Argirocastro, situated twelve leagues distant from Yanina, which would not be governed by a person he sent for that purpose, nor anywise submit to him. With this excuse he wrote to captain Bogia and captain Giavella, two of the most considerable of the chiefs of the Greek inhabitants of the mountain

of Sulli, praying them to meet him with all their soldiers or companions, to assist in this expedition. His letter was in modern Greek, of which the following is a verbal translation:

"My friends, captain Bogia and captain Giavella, I, Ali Pasha, salute you, and kiss your eyes, because I well know your courage and heroic minds. It appears to me that I have great need of you, therefore I entreat you immediately, when you receive my letter, to assemble all your heroes, and come to meet me, that I may go to fight my enemies. This is the hour and the time that I have need of you. I expect to see your friendship, and the love which you have for me. Your pay shall be double that which I give to the Albanians, because I know that your courage is greater than theirs; therefore I will not go to fight before you come, and I expect that you will come soon. This only, and I salute you."

"I was present when the pasha's Greek secretary wrote this letter, and I took a copy of it, it not appearing to him or to me as a matter of secrecy.

"Ali Pasha is an Albanian of Tepé-dellen; he is a son of Veli Pasha, who governed a part of Albania; though a Mahomedan, he understands very little Turkish, and speaks only Greek and the Albanian language, which is a mixture of Slavonian, Turkish, Greek, and a few old French words, but perfectly unintelligible to those who understand all those languages.

"On receiving this flattering letter, the chiefs held a council with their men. Captain Bogia, and the majority of the soldiers, thought the pasha's proposal was only a stratagem to get them into his power,

er, and make himself master of their mountain. Captain Bogia, in consequence, wrote to the pasha, that he received his letter with great respect and submission, and was himself ready to obey his orders; but as he could not persuade his people to follow him, it was unnecessary for him to go alone. Captain Giavella, either through avarice or ambition, was induced to comply with the pasha's request, and went to his army, though only with seventeen men. He was received with great marks of friendship. The pasha and his army marched four leagues on the road towards Argirocastro, and encamped; but he sent an advanced post, consisting of 400 men, under a bulukbashee, as far as the town, and the people making a sortie, a skirmish ensued. Giavella and his men were now perfectly convinced of the pasha's design, and laid aside all suspicion; but six days afterwards they were all seized unawares, as they were dispersed in the Turkish camp, and put in heavy irons, except three, who, getting their arms, defended themselves till they were slain. The men were sent to Yanina, and imprisoned in the small island which is in the Acherusian lake, on the banks of which Yanina stands; but Giavella was kept in the camp. The pasha immediately turned his march towards Sulli, and arrived before the mountain the next day. The Suliotes, who are always on their guard, had notice of the pasha's approach, and of the fate of their countrymen, six hours before he arrived. They assembled, and gave the command in chief to captain Bogia, whose abilities they knew.

The mountain of Sulli, or Caco-sulli, so called on account of the ill the Turks have experienced from them, is situated eight leagues from

Santa-maura (or Leucas) in the Ionian Sea, having Prevasa (Nicompolis) to the south-west, distant ten leagues; Yanina to the east, twelve leagues; and south-east, Arta, distant eight leagues.

" To the south, this mountain joins the Chimæra mountains, which are inhabited also by independent Greek Christians, allies of the Suliotes. On the east, at the foot of the mountain, is a fine plain of about six square leagues, which is very fertile; in it they have built four villages, for the purpose of cultivating the land; but in time of danger the inhabitants fly to the mountain. There being no water in the plain, they have sunk cisterns or reservoirs to collect the rain.

" The mountain is a natural strong fortress. Three sides are perpendicular precipices to the bottom. The top of the mountain they call Tripa, which signifies a cavity. There is only one narrow steep passage to ascend to it, and it is defended by three towers, nearly a mile distant from each other, situated on eminences, where the road is most difficult. The ascent is about three miles long. In the first mile there is a village called Kapha, which signifies top or summit.

" On the side towards Chimæra there is a small brook, formed by the melting of the snow of those mountains, from which, in case of need, the inhabitants of Sulli get water, by letting down sponges, as the sides are not even enough to let down any kind of bucket or other vessel; and this water cannot be cut off by the Turks, as it is defended by the heights of the mountains.

" Captain Bogia ordered corn to be carried from the villages to the Tripa, for six months provisions, as it is always kept in readiness to be

transported; then the four villages were evacuated; half of the inhabitants went to Kapha, and the others to Tripa, their last asylum, which will contain ten thousand men; then, having more time, he threw into the cisterns hogs and lime, and other nastiness, to prevent the Turks using the water.

"The pasha encamped in the villages, and surrounded the mountain at a distance, to prevent their receiving assistance of troops from the Chimariotes, or ammunition from St. Maura or Prevasa, whence they are always supplied. The main body of the Turkish army in the villages was commanded in person by the pasha; the corps towards Chimæra by his son Mokhtar, pasha of Arta (of two tails) and captain Prognio, who was a chief of the Paramathian Albanese; the side towards Prevasa, was commanded by Mamed Bey and Osman Bey his brother; that on the side of Arta, by Soliman Ciapar, another chief of the same Albanian town of Paramathia, a man of eighty-five years of age, tall, and of a fine gigantic stature, having no appearance of age but the snowy whiteness of his beard; he had with him eleven sons from thirty to sixty years of age, all tall and strong like their father: their bodily strength and personal courage caused them to be looked on as heroes, and gave them a remarkable superiority among their countrymen: they went together, that if one fell the others might revenge his death; for among these people it is the custom, that relations go to the war together to revenge each other's death. Those who have the greatest number of relations are the most powerful families, and the fathers of the principal families are their chiefs.

"I will speak a little on the sub-

ject of those Paramathian Albanese. Their town is situated twelve leagues distant from Yanina; they possess a territory of twelve leagues in circumference, and can bring into the field 20,000 men. Their country is so mountainous and inaccessible, that they have never been conquered by the Turks. How they became Mahomedans they do not know themselves exactly; some of them say, that when the Turks first invaded these countries, they made peace, on condition of becoming Mahomedans, and procuring their independence. They speak Greek, and know no other language; they look on the Turks and other Albanians as effeminate, and hold them in the utmost contempt. They have no regular government; each family or relationship (clan) administers justice among themselves. The largest clans have the most influence in the country in all public or general matters. They are careful not to kill people of another kindred, as the relations revenge his death, and when once bloodshed has thus begun, it goes on till one of the clans is extinct. They always carry their guns with them, whenever they go out of their houses, and never quit them; even at home they are not without their pistols in their girdles; at night they put them under their pillows, and lay their gun by them beside. The same precautions are observed in all these parts, except the town of Yanina. There are amongst the Paramathians, however, a considerable number of Greek Christians, who live all in the same manner. Those who are Mahomedans know little of their religion, or pay little regard to it; their women are not veiled; they drink wine, and intermarry with the Christians. It is true, indeed, that they will not eat

eat pork; but if the husband and wife are of different religions, they make no scruple of boiling in the same pot a piece of pork and a piece of mutton.

"All strangers, Turks, Europeans, Greeks, or others, who happen to pass on their territory, or are caught by them, are carried to their public market, and there sold.

"Being one day at Yanina, at the Greek archbishop's house, I saw a Piedmontese priest, who, travelling in these parts, had been seized by the Paramathians, and sold; his story, as related to me by the prelate, is as follows: Soliman Ciapar being at his house one day on a visit, told him, that he had bought a Frank for four piastres, but that he was good for nothing, and though he beat him daily, he could not make him do so much work as his bread was worth; he would therefore, he said, when he got home, kill him as a useless beast. The archbishop offered to buy him for the four piastres he had cost, and to pay the money immediately, if Ciapar would give security (for here no one trusts another). The bargain being settled, the Frank was sent: he proved to be a man of learning, and the archbishop established a school under his direction at Yanina, for Greek children. When I was there, he gained fifty and sixty piastres a month, and was so pleased with his situation and the kindness of the archbishop, that he had resolved to remain in that country, and marry.

"A stranger might travel into these mountains, and would be treated hospitably by the inhabitants, if, while he was in a neighbouring country, he put himself under the protection of a Paramathian, who would give security for his being brought back safe.

"But to return to the pasha's expedition. The second day after the army had encamped in the plains of Sulli, the pasha caused captain Giavella to be brought before him, and told him, that if he would inform him how he could get possession of the mountain, he would not only spare his life, but make him *beluk-bashee* of the province. Giavella answered, that if he would set him at liberty, he would go to the mountain, and engage his party, and at least half the inhabitants, to submit to him, and take up arms against Bogia; that by these means he could introduce the pasha's troops into the Tripa, when the other party would also be glad to make their peace without fighting. The pasha asked him what security he would give for his performing his promises. Giavella answered, he would give him as an hostage his only son, a boy of twelve years of age, who was dearer to him than his own life, that if he deceived him he might put his son to death. Giavella accordingly called his son down from the mountain; but as soon as he got to the mountain himself, he wrote to the pasha as follows:

'Ali Pasha, I am glad I have deceived a traitor; I am here to defend my country against a thief. My son will be put to death, but I will desperately revenge him before I fall myself. Some men, like you Turks, will say I am a cruel father to sacrifice my son for my own safety. I answer, if you take the mountain, my son would have been killed, with all the rest of my family and my countrymen; then I could not have revenged his death. If we are victorious, I may have other children, my wife is young. If my son, young as he is, is not

‘willing to be sacrificed for his country, he is not worthy to live, or to be owned by me as my son. Advance, traitor, I am impatient to be revenged. I am your sworn enemy, captain Giavella.’

“The pasha did not think proper in his rage to put the hostage immediately to death, but sent him to Yanina, to his son Velim-bey, who governed in his absence. I was present when the boy was brought before him: he answered the questions put to him with a courage and audaciousness that astonished every one. Velim-bey told him, he only waited the pasha’s orders to roast him alive. I don’t fear you, the boy answered; my father will do the same to your father or your brother, if he takes them. He was put in a dark prison, and fed on bread and water.

“The pasha attacked the village of Kapha, and was repulsed three different times with great loss, but captain Bogia considering the disparity of numbers, as the Suliotes had only 900 men in the Tripa, resolved to abandon this post, which the Albanese took possession of the next time they attacked it, though with considerable loss, the Suliotes firing at them from among the rocks in safety.

“The pasha’s troops, suffering very much through want of water, which was brought to them six leagues on horses, as all those who attempted to fetch water from the brook under the Sulli mountain were killed by stones the women rolled down on them, or shot by the men, began to mutiny; the pasha therefore determined to storm the Tripa the next day, and having assembled the principal officers, and chosen 800 Albanians, he exposed all his treasure in his tent, which consisted of Venetian ducats, and

told them, it should all be distributed among them if they took Tripa; and that, besides, they should have all the immense riches which it was known were there. The next day the 800 Albanians, having at their head Mehmetem-ber, and in the main body two sons of Soliman Ciapar, and in the rear captain Brogno, marched to the assault, and drawing their sabres, declared they would not sheathe them till they were victorious.

“Captain Bogia left 400 men to garrison Tripa, and sent four hundred to lie in ambuscade in the forest on each side of the road, with orders not to attack till the signal agreed on was made from the second tower, in which he shut himself up with sixty men, and from whence, by means of signals, he commanded the movements. Giavella went with the troops into the forest like a common soldier, the better to take his meditated revenge. The ambuscade was commanded by Deme-trius, Bogia’s son.

“The head of the Albanian column advanced without molestation as far as the second tower, which they surrounded, and summoned Bogia to surrender. He replied, he could not trust himself to them, but would submit to captain Brogno when he arrived; they therefore marched further up towards Tripa, leaving him, as they thought, a prisoner. The pasha’s army, seeing the Albanese had advanced without resistance to the top of the mountain, and fearing to be deprived of a share of the plunder of Tripa, left their tents, and ran up the mountain with shouts of victory. When Bogia saw that the enemy, in number about 4,000, had advanced to the third tower, which was near the Tripa, he rang a bell, the signal

for a general attack, which was a general slaughter: the ambuscade preventing any returning. They were in every part exposed to the fire of the Suliotes, who were covered by the rocks or the trees, and from the second tower Bogia made great havoc. The women from the heights rolled down great stones, which for that purpose are always piled up. The enemy defended themselves, when the Suliotes came out to meet them, with great obstinacy; they were, however, all killed, except 140, who surrendered themselves prisoners. Among them was a son of Soliman Ciapar, and many officers. The Suliotes had fifty-seven killed and twenty-seven wounded. Giavella was among the slain. After shooting from the ambuscade a great number of the enemy, he sallied out with some of his friends, to avenge the supposed death of his son, and to fight till all the enemy were killed, or he himself fell. After making a great havoc among the enemy, into the thickest of whose ranks he had ran forward with desperate valour, he fell, covered with wounds, and surrounded by heaps of slain.

"The bodies being thrown down from the rocks into the Turkish camp, struck the remainder of the army with such a panic that they fled with great precipitation towards Yanina, and abandoned the pasha. Bogia profited of their disorder to send 200 men, who, falling on the rear, cut off great numbers. The pasha himself escaped with difficulty, and killed two horses before he got back to Yanina. All the baggage, ammunition, arms, provisions, and the pasha's treasure, fell into the hands of the Suliotes, besides four large cannon, which they drew up to the Tripa, and

which were a great acquisition to them.

"The other corps, towards Prevasa, Arta, and Chimara, followed the example of the main body, and reached Yanina in great haste. So great indeed was their panic, that none of them stopt till they got within the walls of the city, thinking they were still pursued by the Suliotes.

"In the mean time, the communication being opened with the Chimariotes, the Sulian army increased in two days so much, that they found themselves strong enough to offer the pasha battle in the open plains. They marched to an estate of the pasha's near Yanina, and took possession of it, whence they sent him a letter, threatening to take him prisoner in his haram. They pursued the Paramathians into their country, where they cut down the trees, and drove away vast herds of cattle and flocks of sheep to Sulli.

"The pasha, apprehensive for the safety of his capital, sent a bishop to propose peace to the Suliotes. It was concluded on the following conditions:

1st. That the pasha cedes to the Suliotes all the territory as far as Dervigiana (six leagues from Yanina) inclusively.

2. That all the Suliotes, who were prisoners, should be set at liberty. (Then Giavella's son returned safe to Sulli.)

3. The pasha should pay 100,000 piastres as a ransom for the prisoners the Suliotes had made.

"With the Paramathians they concluded a separate peace, as they are not dependent on the pasha.

"The conditions were, that they should in future be allies, and that they should on all occasions succour

the Suliotes, both with men, arms, and provisions, when they were at war.

"Returned home to their mountain, the Suliotes divided the booty, and the 100,000 piaſtres, into five parts: one was deſtined to the repair of churches, which the Turks had damaged, and to build a new one on the Tripa, dedicated to the holy virgin; the ſecond part was put into the public box for the ſervice of the community; the third was equally divided among all the inhabitants, without diſtinction of rank or age; the two other parts were diſtributed to the families of thoſe who had loſt men in battle.

"This peace was ſoon broken by the paſha, who was twice afterwards defeated, and the Suliotes gained ſtill greater honour.

"The writer of this journal further ſays, that in this country

there are ten Greeks to one Turk; that the Sulian army always conſiſts of about 20,000 men, including their neareſt neighbours on the Chimæra mountains. He points out how eaſy it would have been for them to have put in effect what their chiefs had concerted with the Ruſſians. But I avoid entering into particulars, as I might give information to thoſe who would make a bad uſe of it.

"It was afterwards diſcovered, that the French conſul, Mr. de la Salas, had adviſed the paſha to get poſſeſſion of Sulli and Chimæra, as then he would have nothing to fear from the porte, if he threw off all obedience; and that the French could then ſupply him with artillery and ammunition, &c. Mr. de la Sala was one day ſhot dead in the ſtreet at Prevafa by a captain of Lambro's fleet."

CHARACTER and present CONDITION of the TUSCANS.

[From the firſt Volume of SELECTIONS from the MOST CELEBRATED FOREIGN LITERARY JOURNALS.]

"THERE is not a country in Italy which nature has ſo richly endowed with all the properties that have an influence on the happy formation of man as Tuscany. It is bounded towards the north and eaſt by the Apennine mountains, which not only ſhield it from the froſty winds, but water it with rivers and ſtreams and ſalubrious ſprings. Ever-verdant hills and dales in alternate undulations form the ſurface of the country from one end to the other, becoming thus alone one ſcene of delight both to the bodily and the

mental eye. This charming interchange of elevation and deſcent, of hills and vallies, is every where richly productive of all for which the leſſer Aſia and the iſles of Greece are ſo celebrated, as affording the moſt valuable nutriment to mankind; and as to the wines, they are partly improved. What elſe may be wanting to the comfort of life is ſupplied by induſtry and commerce.

"As the inhabitants of this favoured climate neither breathe the watery exhalations of the ſlimy Po, nor the ſteams of Veſuvius, ſo keep-

keeping the mean betwixt the singulish dulness of the Lombards, and the fiery enthusiasm of the Neapolitans, they are fitted by nature for whatever requires understanding and dexterity. As far as history reaches, they have ever taken the lead of all other European nations in arts and sciences. To the Romans they taught religion, the theatrical art, manufactures and commerce; and, on the return of light, after a universal darkness of several ages, not only the imitative arts, but likewise history, poetry, and rhetoric, mathematics and physics, here found their first restorers.

"Florence is both the centre and the capital of this renowned nation. He that traverses Italy, and surveys this city, with its circumjacent territories, is immediately convinced that a totally different genius here prevails among mankind. Regularity, ornament, and fine taste, pervade their public places, streets, and villas, the statues, libraries, and galleries both in public and private edifices. The people are every where civil; and though, in their expression, one hears a disagreeable aspiration, more or less, according to the various districts of the state; yet their speech itself is so genuine and regular, so full of ingenious proverbs and happy phrases, that, with all the corruptions which the reading and imitation of French writings have introduced, it may still be considered as the best living source of genuine language.

"The Florentine loves employment, is very diligent and industrious. Where he has a prospect of but a small gain, or of advantageously reaching his aim, he is not to be discouraged by the method he must pursue or the pains it may

cost him; no delay, no obstacle can make him slacken his industry or abate his ardour; though he see with his keen perceptions the improbability of success. He then desists as readily and without murmuring, from the farther prosecution of his project, as he is ingenious in the invention of some other process. To this industry of the Florentines we are indebted for the rise of experimental philosophy; and their opulence in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries was a signal effect of it.

"They are contented with a little, and are immoderately disposed to joy. Half a dozen of wretched ponies, or a couple of old-fashioned chaises running a race, or a match at tennis, is a grand spectacle at Florence, and sufficient to make the town relate with pleasure. Happy the prince who has such a people to govern! It costs him but little to attain his wishes, and to change every discontent that may arise among them into pleasure and satisfaction.

"Among so contented and industrious a people great crimes are exceedingly rare. A man must have resided many years in Florence and in general in Tuscany, if he can speak of three or four murders or considerable robberies. Nothing seems more useless here, says the famous count Carli, in his *Saggio politico ed economico sopra la Toscana*, than the officers of justice; and nothing does so much honour to the wisdom and benignity of the reigning grand duke, as the abolition of capital punishments among so tractable a people.

"The difference remarked by Plato between Athens and Thebes in Greece, holds good in some measure in Tuscany between Florence

rence and Pisa. Perhaps this may be partly attributed to the vapours arising from the numerous canals and dikes that run through the plains of Pisa; perhaps too the west-winds, so prevalent here, and blowing from the islands that abound in iron, may contribute to it. Certain it is, that the Pisans are very distinguishable from the Florentines by a certain ferocity and hardness apparent on all occasions. Throughout the whole of the Florentine history no instance can be shewn of such an extraordinary cruelty as that with which the Pisans destroyed count Ugolino della Gherardesca, with his innocent children. They have often given evident proofs of their hard dispositions, since the sea-fight off the tower of Melora, in their well-known bridge-plays or rather murderous games, which are happily now abolished. The spirit and rage of party, they used to exhibit on these occasions, was of a peculiar nature. For more than a month, as long as the preparations and the play lasted, husbands parted from their wives, and fathers abandoned their sons, whenever they adhered to different parties. Completely armed in a coat of mail, and with a swinging bludgeon in their hand, they came upon the bridge across the Arno, one party at one end and the other at the other, both inspired with a furious thirst of slaughter; and whoever did not submit or yield by force of heavy blows, was either felled to the ground, or cast headlong into the river. It frequently happened that the combatants could not hear the voice of them that yielded, for very fury; and then the blows were repeated by the victors till the vanquished gave up the ghost.

Such a case actually happened, when the reigning grand duke was for the first time present at this savage spectacle.

"Siena, the capital of a particular duchy, is extensive, thinly peopled, and poor. Yet the pure air of the hills on which it stands, inspires its inhabitants with a cheerful and lively spirit. Plays and games of chance, diversions, and dancing, leave them no leisure for thinking on their poverty or repining at their wretchedness. Poetry, metaphysics, and works of ingenuity, have usurped the place of the spirit of commerce, of arts and manufactures, of courage and wealth, for which they were formerly so conspicuous. They still boast of the imaginary phantom of their ancient greatness. To be a member of their grand council, to bring into the world a handsome poem, or to solve an ingenious question, can so inflate the imagination of a Sieneſe, that he shall actually conceive himself to be a great and happy being. Hence arose the taunting proverb, *aver bevuto a fonte branda*, to have an overweening imagination. Lippings, in his poem, "*Malmantile racqui ſtato*," canto iv. 26. relates of a Sieneſe, of the name of Perlon, that he almost thought himself to be dead, and accounts for it thus:

'Perch' egli è un di quei matti alla Saneſe,
Ch' han ſempre meſcolato del cattivo.'

Siena has, notwithstanding, produced in all ages men of great fame in literature, in the army, and in the church; and it cannot be denied, that its inhabitants excel many other nations of Italy in intellectual capacity, and mental endowments. Count Richcourt, who
many

many years governed this country in the name of the late emperor, used to say, that for forming a perfect species of mankind, he could wish, that the Sieneſe women would marry with men of Piſa, and the Piſaneſe women take huſbands from the men of Siena.

“The reſt of the towns, containing mines, in Tuscany, ſuch as Volterra, Arezzo, Cortona, had nothing diſtinguiſhing enough for rendering them famous and rich, before they were deſpoiled of their liberty by the Florentines. Nature has endowed theſe people with an eminent capacity for arts and agriculture. If they had only proceeded, as they began, to profit by the advantages their wiſe law-giver granted them for the encouragement of agriculture and trade, they would have had no need to palliate their ſplendid indigence by the ſtudy of Etruscan antiquities and uſeleſs genealogies.

“Peſtoia, Piſcia, Prato, and this whole valley, nourish an induſtrious people who beneficially employ themſelves in agriculture and manufactures. All the other diſtricts of Tuscany increaſe the materials of the national commerce by the culture of land, vineyards, and ſilk, and in every corner people are found, expert in promoting the particular and the general welfare.

“To what a height of proſperity might not ſuch a country ariſe, the inhabitants whereof are fitted and diſpoſed to the particular arts of life! where the nobility, who in the other ſtates of Italy, are only employed in contriving how they may waſte their lives in idleneſs and ſleep, contribute their utmoſt to the general proſperity!

“The Tufcan nobility is very numerous. They do not here con-

fine themſelves merely to the peculiar uſe of a peerage in all governments, in being the intermediate claſs between the prince and the people, in promoting arts, manufactures, and commerce by their luxury, in ſerving as a reſtraint upon the people by their dignity and the reverence that is paid them, and in providing ſuch perſons for the adminiſtration of affairs as may be of eminent ſervice, more from ambition than intereſt, either in war or in peace; but they are here of great advantage beſides, by buſying themſelves in commerce. The Tufcan nobility are not of that idle opinion that trade contaminates noble blood. They make not the leaſt hesitation to ſtudy it in the compting-houſe of the merchant, and afterwards to carry it on in their own names. The Florentines, who have for ſo many ages paſt been greatly advanced beyond the reſt of Tuscany in ingenuity and induſtry, have herein tranſcended the bounds of the common origin of nobility, by making it a law, that no family can be admitted among the nobility, who cannot bring proof that they have heretofore been enrolled in the guild-register of the ſilkmen or clothiers. This particular trait is of itſelf ſufficient to give a perfect inſight into their character. How happy would it be for the uſeleſs nobility of oppreſſed nations, if they had but the courage to introduce ſo advantageous a maxim!

“The only inſtance whereby the nobility of Tuscany has hitherto given a conſiderable wound to the public weal, is the right of primogeniture, and the fidei-commiſſes. In a country which can only attain to its utmoſt degree of proſperity by means of commerce, the goods and capitals ſhould neither
be

be unalienably annexed to certain families, nor limited to a certain number of heirs. This evil too the wise regent, by a law enacted some months ago, has happily abolished at least for the future, and thus complied with the wishes of all true patriots.

“Leghorn is a mart constructed on the most refined principles of which the spirit of commerce is capable, and provided with a large and secure harbour. The advantageous situation and extraordinary freedom enjoyed here by all the nations of the world, are the causes that this agreeable city is become, in so short a time, the general depository of Levantine and European products. The number of vessels that annually land here, may be computed from the considerable income of the capitano della Bocca, who for every ship that arrives receives about the value of five shillings. Hence it is no wonder that great fortunes are made, and that the possessors of millions are very frequently met with. Many millions of scudi are in circulation in this town. It is a pleasure to see how, without intermission, ships from all parts of the world are either unloading or taking fresh commodities on board, how full the enormous magazines are of goods from the Levant, the Indies and all parts of Europe, how busy the brokers are, and what vast sums of money are, by the exchange of this place, carried into circulation over the whole surface of the earth.

“Count Carli is surprised, and lays it to the blame of the Tuscans, that of the great number of millionaries at Leghorn, there is not more than two or three of them of their own people, and that all the rest are foreigners. Had he re-

flected, that this is likewise the case in many other famous marts of trade of much greater countries; how short the period of time is, since Leghorn has been visited by all trading nations, and how small the original capital of a Tuscan millionaire must be; he would rather have had reason to wonder how even but one Tuscan should in so short a time have acquired such great wealth. The majority of the foreign merchants are come hither with large capitals, either as heads or branches of substantial mercantile houses in Provence, in England, in Portugal, and other countries. It seldom indeed appears to a foreigner, when he has seen such enormous riches at Leghorn, and with this great idea in his mind, travels through the impoverished towns of Volterra, Arezzo, Cortona, and Siena. Nothing is more natural than for him to blame the sluggishness of the inhabitants of these cities in not profiting by their vicinity to this productive golden mine. But he might perhaps be mistaken. The evil lies by no means in the inactivity of the inhabitants, but in the ancient constitution of the country, which it was ever the aim of duke Leopold to abolish by degrees.

“Tuscany, as every one knows, was formerly, as it were, a forest of republics, who were incessantly at war, and had nothing more in view than how one could get the ascendant over the other. Each distinct republic or city, nay every village almost, conducted itself by its own laws and statutes, which in regard to politics were as contrary as possible to the interests of their neighbouring rivals. Hence arose innumerable burdens and taxes, which were laid on persons and commodities passing through the nar-

narrow confines of these free-states. After these petty states had fallen under the dominion of the Florentines, it became necessary to the general welfare, to treat the conquered territories as members of the aggregate body, and by the abolition of the ancient statutes and customs, to open the way for the due circulation of commerce through the various channels from one end of it to the other. But this did not succeed, and it has been at a stand for two centuries and a half. Thus the cities still remained engaged in a kind of war among themselves, and obstacles were thrown in the way of the communication of commerce almost at every step. Thus for example, before a clothier of Cortona receives a bale of wool of 500 pounds weight from Leghorn, which is about 112 miles distant, it will have been ten times thoroughly searched on the road, and have paid forty-four toll duties, which together amount to the sum of 31 lire (if the bale be reckoned at 260 lire, at 12 per cent.). To this must be added the pay of the transport, and the delays of the toll-gatherers, the liberties they take, the tricks they put in practice to extort bribes, before they will give the necessary documents and passes, and a num-

ber of other grievances. We must also take into the account, that the clothier is obliged to pay just as many dues on sending the stuffs or cloths wrought from this bale of wool, for sale to Leghorn; by this means the price amounts to so much, that, from the competition of other cheaper woollens, no purchaser is to be found. Thus the affair stands in all the cities and towns in Tuscany; and therefore it is no wonder that they reap but little or no fruits from the vicinity of Leghorn.

"The grand duke Leopold, who thoroughly and without prejudice examined into all matters with the eye of a philosopher, and as soon as he was convinced of the truth, resolutely encountered and conquered every difficulty, broke most of the bonds which ignominiously confined the hands of his subjects, and even in some measure remedied this complaint by the abolition of pernicious statutes. The communication between one town and another is no longer obstructed or retarded by any grievous impediment; every Tuscan carries the fruit of his labour, subject to small duties, to market at Leghorn, and manifest proofs of the rapid growth of arts and agriculture are every where seen."

OBSERVATIONS ON the MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DRESS, and DIVERSIONS of the PORTUGUESE; supplementary to those inserted in the New Annual Register for the Year 1795.

[FROM MR. MURPHY'S General View of the STATE of PORTUGAL.]

"IN describing the manners and customs of the Portuguese, most travellers make a distinction

between the northern and southern provinces. The former are reputed hospitable, candid, and adventurous;

venturous; the latter are more civil, but less sincere; more dissimulating, and averse from labour. All ranks are nice observers of ceremonies: in dealing with a merchant or tradesman, some years ago, it would have been less dangerous to fail in payment of a debt than a point of *etiquette*. This ostentation, however, is much worn off at present, by their communication with the northern nations, whom, in opposition to every difference in religious sentiments, they esteem and imitate.

"The manners and customs of the Jews and Moors, which had taken deep root in the country, are not yet eradicated; many vestiges are still discernible, particularly among the inhabitants of the interior provinces, who have little or no intercourse with strangers. The descendants of the latter are very numerous; they are distinguished by the round face, regular features, swarthy complexion, black hair, and sparkling eyes. From these people are derived the bull-feasts, and the custom of sitting cross-legged on cushions. The jealousy of the Portuguese too may be traced to the same source. The pensive solitary manners of the Jews, their love of onions, garlic, and plaintive music, still obtain in a few villages.

"It is remarked by all the valetudinarians who have resorted thither of late years, that the people in general are averse from society; which some, not thoroughly acquainted with the national character, have erroneously attributed to an antipathy to strangers. Whatever society exists among the natives of Lisbon, is chiefly confined to the nobility; between whom and the other classes, policy, or custom, or a mistaken idea of true honour,

has drawn a line of separation. There are some, however, who disdain to be circumscribed by such narrow bounds, and are no strangers to the free exercise of hospitality. 'On all public occasions, either at home or abroad, the nobility affect a great display of pomp, mixed with gravity; and hence they are reputed vain, pre-sumptuous, and proud, which gave occasion to Gratian to remark,

*Que serian famosos
Si non fuessem fumosos.*

'How illustrious would they be,
'If bloated not with vanity.

"But the learned Feijó has observed, that 'all this pompousness is merely the result of a sprightly imagination. The urbanity and politeness with which they treat every person, are incompatible with that haughty and imperious arrogance attributed to them. They are valuable friends to such as solicit their patronage, and have been always esteemed for acts of benevolence.' 'For my part,' says Guevara, in one of his epistles, 'I think the Portuguese nobility are cautious in their actions, and pointed in their words.'

"Among the middling and subordinate ranks, the females especially, there is very little intercourse, except fortuitous meetings in the churches and streets. Every class of tradesmen has a distinct oratory, supported by the voluntary contributions of their society; here they assemble every evening, before supper, to chaunt vespers. They rarely visit each other's houses but on particular occasions, as weddings and christenings; and then they entertain very sumptuously, or rather satiate with profusion.

"Jea-

" Jealousy, and an innate disposition to secrecy, are assigned as the chief causes of this separation. They hold it as a maxim, that he who talks least thinks best; and that the most perfect man is not he who has most good qualities, but fewest bad ones. Pride might also operate, as they wish not to shew their apartments, no more than their wives and daughters, unless they be arrayed in their best attire.

" Yet, however we may regret the many innocent enjoyments of which the females are thus deprived, their seclusion is productive of much domestic felicity. Their bland and simple manners are not liable to be corrupted, nor their attachments dissipated by an extensive communication with the world. The fond husband, thus solaced, is happy, supremely happy in the society of a virtuous partner, whose sole affection is concentrated within the narrow circle of her family.

" As to their persons in general, the women are rather below than above the middle stature, but graceful and beautiful. No females are less studious of enchanting their attractions by artificial means, or counterfeiting, by paltry arts, the charms that nature has withheld. To the most regular features, they add a sprightly disposition and captivating carriage. The round face, and full fed form, are more esteemed in this country, than the long tapering visage and thin delicate frame. Most nations entertain some peculiar idea of beauty in the lineaments and cast of the face; that of the Portuguese will be best understood by their own description of a perfect beauty, which is as follows:

" The forehead should be broad, smooth, and white. The eyes large, bright, and quick, but at the same time still and modest. With respect

to the colour, there are divers opinions; some prefer the blue, some the black, and others the green. A Portuguese named Villa-Real, wrote a treatise in praise of the last. The eye-brows should be large, of a black colour, and form an arch concentric with that of the eye-lid. To be properly adjusted to the rest of the face, the nose should descend in a direct line from the forehead, and form a regular pyramid.

" The mouth, the portal of the human structure through which the messengers of the intellect have constant egress, ought to be rather small than large. The lips rather full than thin; rather relieved than sunk, and the edge of a pure carnation. Teeth are accounted beautiful when they are white, regular, and of equal size, resembling a row of pearls set in an arch of ruby.

" The cheeks must be smooth, and somewhat relieved; the centre of a pure carmine colour, fading insensibly into a lily white; both colours so perfectly blended and proportioned, that neither should predominate.

" With respect to the neck, there is great majesty in one which is large and smooth, rising from the shoulders like an alabaster column.

" But among all the female charms, the most transcendent are the breasts. In form they should resemble a lemon; in colour and smoothness, the orange blossom.

" The most beautiful hands are long and white; the fingers full and tapering. Feet are not accounted pretty if they be not small.

" Of the stature, the middle size is most admired. Without a graceful walk, the most perfect beauty appears awkward; whereas a modest, airy, and serene movement, enhances every other charm; and bespeaks the tranquillity of a mind formed

formed in the school of virtue and decorum.

"They usually sit upon cushions, which, among the better sort, are of crimson velvet. One of their principal employments is spinning flax, for which they still use the spindle and distaff. The women of the province of Minho are so celebrated for this branch of industry, that formerly it was customary to conduct the bride to the house of her spouse, preceded by a youth carrying a spinning apparatus. In the houses of the most respectable merchants, traders, and farmers, the female part of the family disdain not to occupy their time in this manner. Accomplishments, such as people of very humble circumstances in England commonly bestow on their daughters, as dancing, music, drawing, and languages, are unknown here; even among ladies of the first rank.

"Cottons, muslins, and coloured silks, they very rarely wear. A kind of black garment called *mantilha*, over a petticoat of the same colour, both of woollen cloth or silk, but oftener of the former, is the usual dress, except in Lisbon, where the women wear black silk *mantos*; a kind of garment that covers the head and upper part of the body. Cloaks and petticoats of divers colours, made of woollen cloth, fringed with gold lace or ribands, are worn by the inferior ranks. The country-women, except on Sundays and holidays, still wear the ancient national dress—a jacket and petticoat,

"With respect to the dress of the men, it differs not from that of the English or French, except in one garment, namely the *capot*, like that of the Spaniards and Italians; and even this, of late years, is much disused, as it has been often known

to serve for worse purposes than cover a ragged coat. It is an excellent garment; however, for travelling in winter.

"To describe the dresses of the several religious orders is foreign to our purpose; let it suffice, therefore, to observe, that the difference in their respective habiliments consists more in the colour than in the shape.

"The intermediate class between the nobility and merchants is composed of men of small independent property in lands or houses, derived from their fathers, or purchased with the fruits of their own industry; in the capacity of merchants or factors, or by their economy whilst in office under government. These are the *gentlemen* of Portugal. Comparatively speaking, they are few in number, but their virtues are many. Protectors of the poor, benevolent and humane citizens of the world. Men, who, whilst they enlighten the nation by their talents, and pursue its most substantial interest, are the most ready and able to protect and maintain its rights.

"There is one class of people here, than whom, perhaps, few nations can produce a more inoffensive and industrious, and at the same time a more degraded and oppressed; these are 'the pillars of the state,' the peasantry, who are kept in a state of vassalage by a band of petty tyrants, assuming the title of *Fidalgos*.

"Among those, to whom this title properly appertains, there are undoubtedly many who have a just claim to honour and respect; not from the antiquated immunities of feudal times, but from their personal virtues. We entirely separate them from the ignorant, intolerant wretches, who grind the face

of the poor, and depopulate the land.

"Indeed, I am informed by a Portuguese gentleman of very high rank, who sincerely deplores the wretched state of the peasantry of his country, that the chief part of their miseries is owing not to government, but to these gentry. I know not how to give the reader a just idea of them; by privilege they are gentlemen, in manners clowns; beggars in fortune, monarchs in pride. Too contemptible for the notice of the sovereign, to excite the jealousy of the nobles they are too weak; but too strong for the peasantry, from whom they exact adoration. They are to be seen in every town, in every village and hamlet, wrapt up to the eyes in capots, brooding over their imaginary importance. The industrious husbandman must not address them but on his knees. His fate, and that of his family, are at their mercy. On the most trivial pretence they cite him to the court of the next *camarca*, or shire. The wretched farmer, in vain, attempts to justify himself, and after exhausting his resources to fee lawyers, he is sure to be cast at the end of a tedious and vexatious suit. His property is then seized upon, even to his very implements; and if it be not found sufficient to answer all demands, he is doomed to perish in a prison. Many industrious families have been thus annihilated; and others, apprehensive of sharing the same fate, have forsaken their lands, and often the kingdom, to seek protection in the colonies.

"Beggars are a formidable class in this country. Several laws have been enacted from time to time, to diminish the number and restrain the licentiousness of this vagrant train, but in vain. They ramble

about, and infest every place, not entreating charity, but demanding it. At night they assemble in hordes at the best mansion they can find, and having taken up their abode in one of the out-offices, they call for whatever they stand in need of, like travellers at an inn; here they claim the privilege of tarrying three days, if agreeable to them.

"When a gang of these sturdy fellows meet a decent person on the highway, he *must* offer them money; and it sometimes happens that the amount of the offering is not left to his own discretion. Saint Anthony assails him on one side, Saint Francis on the other; having silenced their clamour in behalf of the favourite saints, he is next attacked for the honour of the Virgin Mary; and thus they rob him for the love of God.

"In the year 1544, a law was made, tending to decrease the number of beggars with which the kingdom was infested. By one article it was ordained, that the lame should learn the trade of a taylor or shoemaker. That the maimed, for their subsistence, should serve those who would employ them; and that the blind, in consideration of their food and raiment, should devote their time to one of the labours of the forge, blowing the bellows.

"With respect to diversions, hunting, hawking, and fishing, which were formerly practised, are now very much disused; indeed, there are but few parts, except in the province of Alentejo, wherein the first can be well exercised, on account of the mountainous surface of the country; besides, the want of good cattle is another obstruction; for such is the feebleness of the horses and mules, that they are obliged to employ oxen in drawing all their vehicles of burden.

" Horse-racing is a sport to which they are utter strangers; nor do gentlemen ride abroad for amusement but very seldom; and then a guide must attend them, lest they should lose their way.

" People of fashion, and delicate persons, usually travel in litters. And ladies sometimes take short excursions in the country, upon an ass, or a mule.

" In passing through the streets, the people in general are fond of

riding fast; but in the country they move very deliberately, inasmuch that it is not unusual to see even the post-boy sleeping on his mule.

" Billiards, cards, and dice, particularly the two last, are the chief amusement of every class. Their only athletic exercise is bull-fighting, and fencing with the quarter-staff: the latter is confined to the common people; the former has been often described."

AMUSEMENTS and MANNERS of the MODERN PARISIANS.

[From the First Volume of a TOUR IN SWITZERLAND, &c. by H. M. WILLIAMS.]

" IF the morning at Paris is devoted to business, the evening at least belongs to pleasure: over those hours she holds an undivided empire, but is worshipped at innumerable altars, and hailed by ever-varying rituals.

" During the last winter the amusements of twenty-four theatres, which were opened every night, were every night succeeded by public and private balls, in such numbers, that there were no less than two thousand ball-rooms inscribed on the registers of the police, which keeps its wakeful vigils over every sort of amusement, in all their gradations, from the bright blaze of waxen tapers which displays the charms of nymphs dressed *à la sauvage* or *à la grec*, who grace the splendid ball *de Richelieu*; to the oily lamp which lights up the seventh story, or the vaulted cellar, where the blind fidler's animating scrape calls the sovereign people to the cotillon of wooden shoes.

" These two thousand ball-rooms of the capital afford ample proof

that no revolution has taken place in the manners of the French, and that they are still a dancing nation. They have indeed of late fully demonstrated to the world that they are capable of greater things; and that when the energies of their souls are called forth, they can follow Buonaparte across the bridge of Lodi; but when their minds return to their natural position, every barrack has a room appropriated for dancing, and the heroes of Arcole, as well as the *muscadins* of Paris,

" All knit hands, and beat the ground
" In a tight and close round."

" The fetes of the court, it is asserted by the few persons remaining in France, by whom they were frequented, were but tawdry splendour compared with the classical elegance which prevails at the fetes of our republican contractors. As a specimen of these private balls, I shall trace a short sketch of a dance lately given by one of the furnishers of stores for fleets and armies in his spacious hotel, where all the furniture

furniture, in compliance with the present fashion of Paris, is antique; where all that is not Greek is Roman; where stately silken beds, massy sofas, worked tapestry, and gilt ornaments, are thrown aside as rude Gothic magnificence, and every couch resembles that of Pericles, every chair those of Cicero; where every wall is finished in arabesque, like the baths of Titus, and every table, upheld by Castors and Poluxes, is covered with Athenian busts and Etruscan vases; where that modern piece of furniture a clock is concealed beneath the classic bar of Phœbus, and the dancing hours; and every chimney-iron is supported by a sphinx, or a griffin. The dress of his female visitors was in perfect harmony with the furniture of his hotel; for although the Parisian ladies are not suspected of any obstinate attachment to Grecian modes of government, they are most rigid partizans of Grecian modes of dress, adorned like the contemporaries of Aspasia—the loose light drapery, the naked arm, the bare bosom, the sandaled feet, the circling zone, the golden chains, the twisting tresses, all display the most inflexible conformity to the laws of republican costume. The most fashionable hair-dresser of Paris, in order to accommodate himself to the classical taste of his fair customers, is provided with a variety of antique busts as models; and when he waits on a lady, enquires if she chuses to be dressed that day *à la Cléopâtre, la Dianne, or la Psyche*? Sometimes the changeful nymph is a vestal, sometimes a Venus; but the last rage has been the *Niobé*: of late fat and lean, gay and grave, old and young, have been all *à la Niobé*; and the many-curl'd periwig, thrown aside by the fashionable class, now decorates the heads of petty shop-keepers.

“The fair Grecians being determined not to injure the contour of fine forms by superfluous incumbrances, no fashionable lady at Paris wears any pockets, and the inconvenience of being without is obviated by sticking her fan in her belt, sliding in a flat purse of morocco leather, ‘only large enough to contain a few louis, at the side of her neck, and giving her snuff-box and her pocket-handkerchief to the care of the gentleman who attends her, and to whom she applies for them whenever she has occasion.

“For a short time during the winter, in defiance of frost and snow, the costume of a few reigning belles was not *à la grec*, but *à la sauvage*. To be dressed *à la sauvage*, was to have all that part of the frame which was not left uncovered clad in a light drapery of flesh colour. The boddice under which no linen was worn (shifts being an article of dress long since rejected at Paris, both by the Greeks and the savages) the boddice was made of knitted silk, clinging exactly to the shape, which it perfectly displayed; the petticoat was on one side twisted up by a light festoon; and the feet, which were either bare or covered with a silk stocking of flesh colour, so woven as to draw upon the toes like a glove upon the fingers, were decorated with diamonds. These gentle savages, however, found themselves so rudely treated whenever they appeared, by the sovereign multitude, that at length the fashions of Oahéïe were thrown aside, and Greece remains the standing order of the day.

“But to return to the contractor, and his ball—after several hours had past in dancing cotillions, which the young women of Paris perform with a degree of perfection—a light nymphlike grace unseen elsewhere—

and after the walse, which is now never forgotten at a Paris ball, had proved that the steady heads of Niobés were not to be made giddy, the company were led to a supper furnished with eastern magnificence, and decorated with attic taste. After supper the folding doors of the saloon were thrown open to a garden of considerable extent, beautifully illuminated with coloured lamps, and its trees bending with lavish clusters of fruits of every season, and every climate, formed of ice, while fountains poured forth streams of orgeat, lemonade, and liqueurs.

"But while these imitators of Greece and Rome are revelling in Asiatic luxury, you hear them lamenting most pathetically the subversion of the ancient regime; that regime, which would at least have had thus much of justice, that it would have retained these personages in the anti-chambers of the saloons they now occupy; to which anti-chambers they would with a counter-revolution most probably return. One is obliged to offer up an invocation to patience, when condemned to listen to their declamations against that new order of things, to which solely they owe their elevation.

"There is indeed one class of persons, before whose complaints of the revolution, however bitter, the mind humbles itself in sympathetic sorrow. The poor *rentier*, while he sips his Spartan black-broth, which he is forced to procure by parting, in sad gradation, with all the relics of his former splendour, with watches, rings, furniture, and clothes: he indeed, if he complains, is to be pitied, and if he forbears complaint, is to be revered! But alas, there is so much of tragical detail in the pages of the great book; a thing which has long since been called a great

evil, that we must give it at least a whole chapter to itself.

"At present I shall only observe, that the reign of terror has acted upon this country like some mighty pestilence, which not only sweeps away devoted millions in its fury, but leaves an obnoxious taint upon every object where it has passed. The reign of terror has given a fatal wound to the energies of public spirit; ordinary minds have mistaken the execrable abuses of liberty for an effect of the generous principle itself: the victims of revolutionary government have lifted up their complaining voice; all the emotions of sympathy, and all the feelings of indignation have been called forth; and the patizans of the ancient regime have left no art unpractised, no seduction untried, to take advantage of these dispositions in favour of their own system.

"Those who have been too rapidly enriched by the revolution have endeavoured to hide the obscurity of their origin, by mimicking the tones of those who have titles and honours to regret, till aristocracy has descended so low, that it will soon perhaps be exploded, like any other fashion, when taken up by the vulgar. Many of the fair wives of titled emigrants, or blooming widows of murdered nobles, who have made such second marriages, that we might well apostrophize them in the language of Hamlet:

- * Such an act
- * That blurs the grace and blush of modesty,
- * Calls virtue hypocrite,
- * Makes marriage vows
- * As false as Dicers' oaths.'

"These very ladies, who have taught their new-made liege-lords to ape their counter-revolutionary follies,

follies, will at length be ashamed of their aristocracy, when they find how successfully they are rivalled in those sentiments by their milliners and mantua-makers. A writer of a late political pamphlet has given an admirable reason why our Parisian belles will soon lay aside the tone of eternal lamentations for the overthrow of despotism. 'Seven years,' says he, 'have already elapsed since the epocha of the revolution: seven years is a period of some length in the history of a youthful beauty, and a lady will soon not be able to regret the monarchy under the penalty of passing for old.' I believe every person who has studied the female heart, will agree with this writer, that the republic has a tolerable chance upon this principle of obtaining ere long many fair proselytes.

"The fans, sparkling with spangled *fleur de lys*, will then be broken; the rings, bearing the insignia of royalty, will be melted down; and the *porte-feuilles*, and *bon-bonnières*, with their sliding-lids, displaying the forbidden images of regal greatness, will no longer be borne about in a sort of triumphal manner, not from a sentiment of sorrow, by those who, attendant on their persons, and basking in their smiles, are privileged to display more than that general regret for their unhappy destiny which humanity feels; but from a sensation of vanity by those, who perhaps never breathed the same atmosphere; never, even at awful distance, gazed upon the original of those pictures which they now affect to cherish as the tender memorials of peculiar favour. These relics, we may venture to predict, will be offered up in one mighty sacrifice at the shrine of the republic, the moment it is well un-

derstood that to be a republican, is to be young.

"Public balls, as well as concerts, were held last winter at the *Theatre Français*, which, after having been long shut up, was repaired, embellished, and baptized by the Greek name of the *Odeon*; and that no jealousy might exist between the balls and concerts; on account of this classical nomenclature, the balls immediately received the appellation of *thiasés*.

"But the most singular species of amusement which the last winter produced, were subscription-balls, entitled *des bals à la victime*. Such, and so powerful was the rage for pleasure, that a certain number of its votaries, who, during the tyranny of Robespierre, had lost their nearest relations on the scaffold, instituted, not days of such solemn, sad commemoration; as is dear to the superstition of tenderness, when, in melancholy procession, clad in sable, and wreathed with cypress, they might have knelt, a mourning multitude, around the spot where the mutilated bodies of their murdered parents had been thrown by the executioner; and bathed the sod with those bitter tears which filial affection, or agonized love, shed over the broken ties of nature, or of passion—no!—the commemorative rites which these mourners offered to the manes of their massacred relations, were festive balls! To these strange, unhallowed orgies, no one could be admitted who had not lost a father, a mother, a husband, a wife, a brother, or a sister, on the guillotine; but any person with a certificate of their execution in his pocket-book, not only obtained admission, but might dance as long, and as merrily as heart could wish. Had Holbein been present at such

a spectacle, no doubt he would have enriched his death-dance with new images, and led forward each gay nymph by an attendant headiefs spectre. The indignant cry of public opinion, however, was at length heard above the music of the walse and the cotillon; and the *bal à la victime* exists no longer to bear its powerful testimony to a depravation, not merely of manners, but of the heart.

"If in the winter, conformably to our Grecian ideas at Paris, concert-rooms became *Odeons*, and the Niobés and the Titus's danced in a *thiasé*, summer can boast of more than equal honours; since then we never tread but on attic ground, and never suffer ourselves to be pleased but when pleasure presents herself with a classical appellation. Witness ye gardens of Tivoli, ye bowers of Idalia, ye winding walks of Elysium, ye grottos of Venus, ye vales of Tempe, ye groves of Thessaly! witness with what fond alacrity the lovers of antiquity fly in multitudes to your enchanting recesses, where the arching trees are hung with innumerable lamps of varying colours, where the ear is exhilarated with the sounds of music, and the eye is cheered with the movements of the dance; and where every evening the hour of ten serves as a general signal, at which the whole city of Paris seems one vast theatre for the display of fireworks. A stranger who should enter this city at night by the bridge of Neuilly, might suppose that he had reached this scene of great events at some important epocha, which had occasioned a general rejoicing. On his right he would discern the lights of *Bagatelle*, beaming through the *Bois de Boulogne*, and would pass close to the brilliant entrance of Idalia; on his left he would be dazzled by the

illuminations of the Elysium; while, as he advanced, he would discern, above every quarter of the town, the tall sky-rockets darting their vivid flash, and would hear in all directions the light explosions of enchanted palaces, with bright arcades and fairy columns;

'The crackling flames appear on high,
'And driving sparkles dance along the sky.'

"*Bagatelle* alone, the once gay retreat of the comte d'Artois, is suffered, by our Grecian amateurs, to retain its old appellation in favour of the regal images which it brings to memory. What food for the ramblings of the mind along the paths of history, when it contrasts the light French modern graces of *Bagatelle*, with the massy, Gothic gloom of Holyrood-house! It may be observed, that the persons who are for ever lamenting the subversion of the ancient regime, are not prevented by their regrets from giving all the encouragement in their power to those who convert one palace after another into scenes of public amusement; and that they eagerly purchase for half a crown, the privilege of treading gaily every evening with the plebeian multitude, those magnificent gardens and sumptuous hotels, of which the possessors have, for the most part, as in former proscriptions, paid for their beautiful retreats at Alba, with their lives. But while these lovers of despotism forget their regrets in their pleasures, the philosophic mind wanders often in musing mood along these festive haunts, where the most singular combinations crowd upon reflection; and, amidst the glowing enthusiasm of liberty, mourns those partial evils that have clouded its
brilliance,

brightness, and abhors those cruel abuses that have sullied its cause !

“ When the multiplied engagements of the evening do not offer leisure for an excursion to Tivoli, or a trip to Idalia, the gay world at least find sufficient time in the interval between the play and, the *petit souper*, to lounge for half an hour at one of the fashionable *glaciers*. A glacier is a sort of coffee-house, established in the fine hotels

of emigrants, splendidly illuminated, open to persons of both sexes, and where you pay for your admission by eating ices, for which there is now so extraordinary a demand in Paris, that if the following winter should prove mild, the ice-purveyors will perhaps be forced to send to the department of Mont Blanc, in order to furnish themselves with means of supplying the enormous wants of their customers.”

CLASSICAL AND POLITE CRITICISM.

On the VARIATIONS of ENGLISH PROSE, from the REVOLUTION to the present TIME, by THOMAS WALLACE, A. B. and M. R. I. A.

[From the Sixth Volume of the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY.]

“THE progress of language marks the progress of the human mind. They proceed together with equal step from the rudeness of barbarism toward that state beyond which improvement cannot go, in which language exhibits the highest polish of elegance and accuracy, and the mind exerts all its faculties in their full force. So true is this, that there can scarcely be found any period in the history of any people when the state of their language did not accurately correspond with the state of their polity and manners, and when a sagacious observer might not have ascertained, with tolerable exactness, the excellence and refinement of these from the qualities of their literary productions. Hence the investigations of the philologist become useful as they furnish important aids to the researches of the historian, and the speculations of the moralist.

“To this general rule there is, however, one exception. Long before the manners of the Greeks had reached that refinement, or their polity had been matured to that

perfection which constitute a nation highly civilised, their language had become copious, energetic and correct. In the compositions of Homer we find, perhaps, as much strength, harmony, and expression, as in those of any subsequent Greek writer; and yet unquestionably, in Homer’s day, Greece had made no very considerable approaches towards excellence in the arts, skill in government, or refinement in manners.

“But if in Greece we find an exception to the rule which marks on the scale of language the improvement of the national mind, in modern Europe we meet abundant illustration of its truth. Here, it will be found, that until settled government, founded on permanent system, succeeded the fluctuations of despotism or anarchy, and, instead of the ferocious and whimsical manners of the middle ages, introduced the milder and more rational habits of modern times, until, in a word, the light of philosophy shone in our horizon, and scattered the thick darkness which hung around the human intellect,
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the language of every people in Europe corresponded in coarseness and confusion with their modes of life and of thinking. Of this England herself is perhaps the most striking instance. With a constitution which vibrated long between opposite extremes before it finally settled in the middle point where liberty as well as truth is found, the moral character of her people was vague and changeful. Agitated long by civil contests, and depressed by the barbarous and deteriorating principles of the feudal policy, the human mind could not, and in fact did not, until a very late period, emerge from that deep grossness into which by those causes it had been sunk. The language of England during those times corresponded with her circumstances. Rude and anomalous, at once superfluous and deficient, it was equally a stranger to precision and to grace: fixed by no standard, though it abounded in words, it was yet, because those words were vaguely used, incapable of expressing with accuracy any nice complication of thought. While men were unaccustomed to think with precision on moral topics, the whole class of moral terms must have been of changeful and indeterminate meaning; and while these topics were not the frequent subjects of living speech or written discourses, those few but important words which are used, not to designate things, but to exhibit the various positions of the mind in thinking, to shew the relation which it means to establish between two propositions, or the different parts of the same proposition, must have been awkwardly and often improperly used. Such a state of language could have existed only where taste was yet unknown, and the powers

of the human mind yet uncultivated.

“ Two causes contributed to raise the English language from this degraded state. First, the Reformation, which by obtruding on the attention moral subjects of the most momentous concern, made it in some measure necessary for men to think with more precision and closeness: secondly, the subsequent disputes between the crown and people on the limits of prerogative and popular right, which continued from the time of Elizabeth to the revolution, and which corroborated into habit that mode of closer and more abstract thinking which the Reformation had introduced. According to the theory we have adopted this change should have induced an improvement in style: it did so; the English language rose rapidly from the low state in which it stood in the beginning of the reign of Henry the Eighth, until, at the accession of William the Third, it had acquired a distinguished degree of excellence. This excellence, however, was but comparative, and appears rather when we consider its former defects, than its subsequent improvements; for, from the time of the revolution to the present day, a numerous succession of fine writers have laboured with success to add to its elegance, copiousness and strength. What they have done, and how far they have raised the English language above its former humble level, will be best known by considering the variations of style which, within that period, it has undergone.

“ In order to give a history of these variations it is not necessary to engage in a dissertation on the style of every author of character who has written within the period which we consider; nor indeed would

would such a work be practicable within the limits of a short essay: it will answer the end at which we aim to point out the general characteristics which have successively distinguished the style of English prose within that time, without engaging in a minute description of the peculiarities of individual writers, except those by whom remarkable variations have been introduced, and whose distinguished excellence has procured for those variations a general adoption. Even this task, however, though less laborious and less prolix than the other, is not without its difficulty. Between the coarse homeliness of Burnet and the elaborate polish of Gibbon; between the loose and uneven composition of Tillotson, in which the ray of genius is so often obscured by the medium through which it passes, and the close precision of Johnson, through which the bright idea shines with steady lustre (if, indeed, it does not from the expression itself derive much of that lustre) the difference is great indeed, and to perceive it requires but little exertion of critical discernment. But other writers have varied essentially the style of English prose, between whose respective merits the difference is neither so great nor so obvious: here lies the difficulty. The difference of opposite colours is easily seen, and not difficult to be described; but of the variety of mixing tints which lie between the two extremes to mark with accuracy the points of transition; to catch the almost evanescent distinctions between collateral shades, and exhibit them with truth and steadiness to the eye, is a work for which talents less common are necessary.

“ Though previous to the revolution the style of English prose

had been greatly improved, it was notwithstanding very far from being faultless. Scarcely any single epithet, indeed, can be found to describe its errors. It was loose, negligent, capricious, and inaccurate: the periods were long and complicated; their parts clumsily connected; circumstances which were necessary to be introduced into a sentence were generally placed injudiciously; and in many instances clauses were appended which should have been formed into distinct sentences. Even of those writers who ranked highest for composition, the greater number abounded in synonymes, a sure mark, not merely of negligent composition, but of loose and inaccurate habits of thought. In the selection of words they were either negligent or unskilful, for, in a multitude of instances, of two words which seemed to court choice, they chose that which, by verging on burlesque, tended to degrade the subject, rather than that which would have suited its dignity. In metaphor they were copious; but their metaphors partook of the general character of their composition: they were often ill selected and frequently ill managed. Even when chance or choice produced a good figure, it was spun out through so many minute circumstances, that judgment was disgusted and attention fatigued. Hence in those writers may be found pages filled with materials, which, under the management of correct taste, might have been raised to sublimity or polished to elegance, but which, in their hands, degenerate into quaintness and puerility. The rules for regulating the use of metaphor they frequently inverted, and instead of recurring to the metaphoric expression when the literal

literal one was mean and vulgar, they, in many instances, are found using trite and vulgar words metaphorically to convey what in the literal expression would not have been destitute of dignity.

"Of unity in their sentences they seem not to have been at all studious. It would be difficult to find any production of that day in every page of which one may not find numerous instances of two, and sometimes three or four, distinct and independent thoughts crowded into one sentence: on the other hand, the instances are, perhaps, not more rare, of clauses naturally and closely connected, as parts of the same whole, being divided into separate periods.

"From this negligence of division, and inattention to minute circumstances, this style has acquired an apparent freedom which in more polished and elaborate composition is in vain looked for. The mind, regardless of accuracy in expression, seems to have been attentive only to ideas.—The torrent of thought is poured forth without hesitation or restraint, and rolls with at least a free, if not a clear current. But, on closer examination, what appeared to be freedom of style is often found to be only looseness of expression. What was gained in the easy flowing of the sentence was lost by its want of perspicuity, and when the period which filled the ear with harmonized sounds comes to be considered by the understanding it is perceived to be inflated with superfluous verbiage, or darkened by unnecessary prolixity.

"That he who uses two words to express one idea either does not understand, or does not attend to the meaning of the words he uses,

has often been observed. Whatever truth there may be in the remark, it is certain the writers of this period are frequently chargeable with this practice. Nor were they deficient in precision only, which is always destroyed by the introduction of superfluous words; they, perhaps, not less frequently violated propriety: they not only used words in pairs to express single ideas, but of those words, of which the meaning was not thus propped by subsidiary phrases, the use was, in many instances, manifestly improper, and in still more vague. In the use of corresponding particles, too, the style of 88 was faulty in a great degree. Nor was it erroneous merely in the manner of connecting the component clauses of sentences together; it was equally so in the connection of the sentences themselves. Among the writers of this period it is that we find the practice most prevalent of making *which*, at the beginning of one sentence, a relative to the whole of that which precedes; and surely nothing in style can be more inartificial, nothing more repugnant to precision or to taste.

"Besides those more important defects, there were others which equally violated grace though they did not equally induce obscurity. Such are the frequent use of compound adverbs, *whereupon*, *whereas*, *wherein*, &c. the use of the obsolete pronominal adjectives *mine*, *thine*, before substantives; the formation of the superlative degree by *est* in polysyllable adjectives; and the frequent introduction of colloquial idioms. Of these charges it will not be necessary to give any other proof than a reference to the writings of that day; if examples be wanted, they may be found thick-
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ly strewed in every stage of them.

“ Notwithstanding the very general prevalence of those errors in the style of English prose at the period of the revolution, it must not be understood that excellence in composition was at that time no where to be met with. Dryden stands a great and illustrious instance of correctness and elegance in prose, as well as of harmony and fire in poetry. His prefaces and his critical essays are written in a manner which, as has been observed even by the fastidious Johnson, would not, even at the present day, after the lapse of more than a century, be thought obsolete, and might, even now, be prescribed as a model of many of the graces of composition. Its easy and natural flow, its gracefulness and rich variety, cannot, after all the improvements which in so long a period have been made in our language be easily exceeded by modern taste and skill in writing. Yet even Dryden himself, with all his merits, affords some instances, though certainly they are but thinly scattered, of most of the faults of which his contemporaries are guilty. In his Essay on Heroic Poetry, for instance, we find such a passage as the following: ‘ for their (the poets) speculations on this subject are wholly poetical; they have only fancy for their guide, and that being *sharper* in an excellent poet than in a heavy phlegmatic gowmsman, will see farther in its own empire, and produce more *satisfactory motions* on those *dark and doubtful problems*.’ He is sometimes ungrammatical, and sometimes violates propriety, as when he says ‘ to which I have added some original, *which*, whether *they* are equal or inferior

‘ to my other poems *an* author is the most improper judge, and therefore I leave them wholly to the mercy of the reader.’ But it would be invidious to enumerate examples of this kind in such an author as Dryden, whose beauties, both in prose and poetry, so far out-number his defects; and whose superiority over his contemporaries is too evident to the most ordinary reader to be denied or doubted.

“ If the character of this period for style could be saved by the merits of one or two individuals, Spratt might be adduced with Dryden to vindicate the taste of his age. In his works may be found passages nicely correct and of extreme elegance. In general he avoids synonyms; makes a happy selection of words, and forms them into sentences of much harmony. Though it cannot perhaps be truly said that in the management of his metaphors he is always happy, yet it would be difficult to find in him so many instances of over-wrought, or ill-chosen figures, as in any of his contemporaries equally voluminous. In the connection of his sentences he probably is not so blameless. His history of the Royal Society has been praised for its composition, and that it is still read is a proof that it deserves the praises which have been given to it; but I am not sure that in his less celebrated ‘ Account of the Plot,’ there do not occur passages which better merit the character of fine writing than any which are to be met in his history of the society, or any other of his tracts.

“ Had not Hooker written too early to rank among those writers of whom we have been speaking, he would have afforded ample subject of commendation for purity of lan-

lan-

language and precision in style; in other instances, perhaps, some for censure. At present it is enough to observe that by comparing the writings of Hooker with those of the best authors of 88, it will appear that in the intervening century much less improvement had been effected in the style of English prose than has taken place in the interval between the revolution and the present day.

"With all these faults in style, the writers of this period are to be reckoned among those who have raised most high the literary character of their country. They have, indeed, a claim to higher praise than that of polished composition; they abounded in good sense, and in fine genius, and had an extensive knowledge of the lettered and of the living world. Let not, therefore, the flimsy and superficial, though, perhaps, more accurate writer of modern times, pretend that because his trifles sparkle with more brilliancy and exhibit a smoother surface, they are, therefore, superior to the rich and solid, though less polished, productions of this period: our ancestors wrote for fame as they strove for liberty, with the strong minds of men more attentive to things than words; we, perhaps, in the sickly taste of modern refinement, prefer form to substance, and substitute elegance of expression for sound sense.

"With Addison and his contemporaries originated the first variation that occurred, subsequent to the revolution, in the composition of English prose. Though the diffuse style still continued to prevail, it was no longer the loose, inaccurate and clumsy style by which the compositions of his predecessors were disgraced. So great, indeed, was the improvement, and so

striking the variation introduced by Addison, that he who compares the productions of this elegant writer with those of the best writers of 88, will find it difficult to avoid surprise, how, with such precedents before him, he could have risen at once to a degree of excellence in style which constitutes him a model for imitation. The forced metaphor, the dragging clause, the harsh cadence, and the abrupt close, are all of them strangers to the works of Addison. In the structure of his sentences, though we may sometimes meet marks of negligence, yet we can seldom find the unity of a sentence violated by ideas crowded together, or the sense obscured by an improper connection of clauses. Though, like his predecessors, he frequently uses two words to express one idea, yet, in this instance, he is less faulty than they; and, among the variations introduced by him, we must reckon a more strict attention to the choice of words, and more precision in the use of them.

"Of figurative language Addison has always been acknowledged the most happy model. He was, indeed, the first of the English prose writers who were equally excellent in the choice and in the management of their figures. Of those who preceded him, it has been observed that they were frequently unhappy in both instances; that their metaphors either were such as tended rather to degrade their subject than to give it dignity and elevation; or that when they were well chosen, they were spoiled by the manner in which they were conducted, being detained under the pen until their spirit evaporated, or traced until the likeness vanished. Addison avoided both faults: his metaphors are selected with care and

and taste, or rather seem to spring spontaneously from his subject; they are exhibited to the mind but for a moment that the leading traits of similitude may be observed while minute likenesses are disregarded—like those flashes of electric fire which often illumine a summer's night, they shed a vivid, though a transient lustre, over the scene, and please rather by the brightness with which they gild the prospect than the accuracy with which they shew its beauties.

“Should it be doubted, whether the improvement of style which took place in the time of Addison—that variation which substituted uniform and correct neatness in composition, for what was loose, inaccurate and capricious, be justly attributed to him—the doubt will vanish when it is remembered that in no work prior to his time is an equal degree of accuracy or neatness to be found, and even among those periodical papers to which the most eminent of his contemporary writers contributed, the *Clio* of Addison stands eminently conspicuous. It was, indeed, from the productions of that classic and copious mind that the public seems to have caught the taste for fine writing which operated from that time to the present, and which has given to our language perhaps the greatest degree of elegance and accuracy of which it is susceptible—for if any thing is yet to be added to the improvement of the English style, it must be more nerve and muscle, not a nicer modification of form or feature.

“—*festinant lævia, nervi*

“*Deficiunt animi, ne:*

“While Addison was communicating to English prose a degree of correctness with which it had

been, till his time unacquainted, Swift was exemplifying its precision and giving a standard for its purity. Swift was the first writer who attempted to express his meaning without subsidiary words and corroborating phrases. He nearly laid aside the use of synonyms in which even Addison had a little indulged, and without being very solicitous about the structure or harmony of his periods, seemed to devote all his attention to illustrate the force of individual words. Swift hewed the stones, and fitted the materials for those who built after him; Addison left the neatest and most finished models of ornamental architecture.

“Of the character which is here given of these two writers it is unnecessary to give proof by quoting passages from their works, for two reasons; the one is, that their works are in the hands of every body; the other, that the qualities which we attribute to their style are so obvious that it were superfluous to illustrate them.

“Besides those first reformers of the style of 1688, there were others, contemporary with them, who contributed to promote the work which they did not begin. Bolingbroke and Shaftesbury, like Addison, were elegant and correct, and seem from him to have derived their correctness and elegance. Of this, so far as it concerns Shaftesbury, there is a most remarkable proof. His Tract, entitled ‘An Enquiry concerning Virtue,’ was in the hands of the public in 1699, in a state very different indeed from that in which his lordship published it in the year 1726. It partook of all the faults which were prevalent in the style of that day, but particularly in the length of its periods, and the inartificial

ficial connection of them. In the edition of 1726 those errors were in a great measure corrected; the sentences are broken down, and molded with much elegance into others less prolix; and sharing in some degree all the beauties of Addison's style, except those which perhaps his lordship could not copy, its ease and simplicity. Indeed Shaftesbury, in the form in which we now have him, appears to be more attentive than Addison to the harmony of his cadences, and the regular construction of his sentences; and certainly if he has less simplicity has more strength. Bolingbroke, too, participating in correctness with Addison, has some topics of peculiar praise; he has more force than Addison—and—what may appear strange, when we consider how much more vehement and copious he is, has more precision. The nature of the subjects on which Bolingbroke and Shaftesbury wrote naturally tended to make them more attentive to precision than Addison. These subjects were principally abstract morality and metaphysics—subjects of which no knowledge can be attained but by close and steady thinking, or communicated but by words of definite and constant meaning. The language of Addison, however elegant in itself, or however admirably adapted by its easy flow to those familiar topics which are generally the subjects of diurnal essays, was too weak for the weight of abstract moral disquisition, and too vague for the niceties of metaphysical distinction. It was fitted for him whose object was to catch what floated on the surface of life; but it could not serve him who was to enter into the depths of the human mind, to watch the progress of intellectual operation, and em-

body to the vulgar eye those ever fleeting forms under which the passions vary.

“ It might afford much matter of curious speculation to the philosopher, to enquire whether it was this aptitude in the language of Addison to those light topics of writing in which he excelled that directed his choice of subjects, or whether his peculiar cast of style was formed by his choice of such topics. Probably both operated, or rather both were effects of the same cause. A man's cast of thought gives a character to his style, and where choice is free, the subject for composition is determined by the complexion of the mind. But whatever might have been the cause of Addison's excellence in point of style, or that of his compeers Bolingbroke and Shaftesbury, it is certain that for some time previous to the revolution there had been causes in operation which necessarily tended to produce a general improvement in the style of English prose. Some of those have been already hinted above; there are others that deserve mention. Not only had the religious and political disputes which had called forth and in some measure sharpened the intellect of the nation, introduced a positive improvement in composition—they did more; they sowed the seeds of still farther and more important improvements, by diffusing a taste, and in some measure creating a necessity for study. Classical learning had been revived by the reformation. Instead of the barbarisms of monkish Latin, the public had gotten a taste, not only of the fine writings of ancient Rome, but of the compositions of the poets and historians of Greece, who had been so long buried beneath the rubbish of popish ignorance. Literary contests,

tests, created by political differences, diffused still more widely a knowledge of those best models of composition—for on a question of government or liberty, to whom could reference be so safely or naturally made as to those who were supposed to have known best the theory of the one and the practice of the other? In fact, classical learning was perhaps never more cultivated in England than for some time previous to the revolution, and in such circumstances it was impossible that style should not have improved in its most essential qualities.

“It has been already observed that the style of Dryden was in almost every point of view much superior to that of the writers of his day. So far then as he exhibited to the public better models of prose composition, so far must he have contributed to improve the style of that and the succeeding period. But exclusive of this excellence in his writings, the nature of the subjects of which he treated in many of his prose works contributed still more to improve the taste of his countrymen in composition. Many of his prefaces are professedly critical dissertations on various kinds of writing, and in these he communicated to the public, even to those of them who were not the learned, such true principles of taste, and sound rules of judgment, as must necessarily have accelerated their approach to that accuracy and elegance which English prose so shortly afterward began to display.

“There was a still more immediate cause of improvement in the style both of his prose and poetry. The polish and refinement of the court of Charles II. of which the dissoluteness was the grave of the morality of the nation, was perhaps the parent of much of that elegance

which characterised Addison, and those authors who cultivated our language in the succeeding reigns. The public taste was improved by ingrafting the light beauties of French literature on the solid stock of English learning; and then by a happy concurrence of circumstances our language came to unite copiousness and strength with grace and elegance.

“So wide was the variation of the style of Addison and his contemporaries from that of the period of 1788, that no subsequent variation was so great or so obvious. His sound judgment and fine taste raised the language in which he wrote, at one effort, as much above its former level as the continued improvements of succeeding writers raised it above that at which he left it. Improvement, however, it did receive, and among those who contributed to that improvement the amiable Goldsmith holds, perhaps, the highest place. Possessing all the qualities which constitute a fine writer, intellect, erudition, and above all, taste in composition, distinguished equally by the mild fertility of his imagination, and the correct copiousness of his language, he seems to have carried the improvements of Addison’s style almost as far as they could be carried. But even in this its highest state of excellence it was still the style of Addison, distinguished by nothing but a greater degree of those qualities for which the writings of Addison were remarkable. As it would, therefore, be improper, perhaps, to call those improvements variations in style, it will be permitted in an essay of this nature to pass them over without more particular notice, and come at once to those changes which have been introduced by Dr. Johnson—the colossus of English literature—the mul-

multiplicity and excellence of whose writings have raised up such an host of imitators, of friends and of enemies.

“Johnson varied the style of English prose in three instances—in the form of its phrases, in the construction of sentences, and in diction. To describe accurately these variations were to give an essay on his style and writings; and this has been already so ably done by a member of this society that it would be unsafe and unnecessary again to attempt it. The nature of this essay, however, requires that on this subject something should be said, not to point out his beauties or defects, but merely to mark the variations which he has introduced.

“Of the changes in phraseology introduced by Johnson the principal is the substitution of the substantive expressing the quality in the abstract for the adjective expressing it in concrete, or, the verb substantive for the verb itself. Thus when he says that ‘none of the axioms which recommend the ancient sages to veneration seems to have required less extent of knowledge or less perspicacity of penetration than the remark of Bias, *ὅτι πάντες κἀνὼν*,’ he substitutes *extent* for *extension*, and *perspicacity* for *acute*: and when he makes Dicaulus say that ‘every tongue was diligent in prevention or revenge,’ he makes him say what in the language of other men would have been ‘diligent to prevent or revenge.’

“By the frequent use of this phraseology Johnson has given a degree of strength and solidity to his sentences which he could have given them, perhaps, by no other means. The advantages of it have been pointed out in the essay above
1798.

alluded to; the cases in which it may properly be used, and the instances in which Johnson has used it improperly, are there mentioned, and to mention them again would be but to repeat what has already been eloquently said.

“In the construction of his sentences he has many peculiarities. One of these is the habit of placing the oblique case at the beginning, and introducing between it and the word by which it is governed some qualifying circumstance. Instances abound: ‘Of two objects tempting at a distance on contrary sides, it is impossible to approach one but by receding from the other.’—‘Many conclusions did I form, and many experiments did I try, &c.’—‘From the hope of enjoying affluence by methods more compendious than those of labour, and more generally practicable than those of genius, proceeds the common inclination to experiment and hazard,’ &c. &c.

“Of this practice the principal effect seems to be that of strongly impressing the mind by exhibiting first to its view the principal object of the sentence. In grave compositions it gives a tone of dignity and strength which admirably corresponds with the nature of the subject; and with respect to sound, its advantages are equally important, as by affording a liberty of transposition it enables the writer to arrange his clauses in the most harmonious manner. The disadvantages of this practice are, that it gives a formality to composition which is not adapted to the easy familiarity of the lighter kinds of writing, and, by leading too frequently to transposition, may sometimes induce obscurity.

“It may be reckoned among his peculiarities of this kind, that he
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crowds together, generally at the end of his sentences, a number of phrases similarly constructed. Perhaps there is no mode of expression of which he gives so many examples. 'He who is unfurnished with any arts that might amuse his leisure, is condemned to wear out a tasteless life in calamities which few will bear, and which none will pity.'—'A careless glance on a favourite author is generally sufficient to supply the first hint or seminal idea, which, enlarged by the gradual accretion of matter stored in the mind, is, by the warmth of fancy, easily expanded into flowers, and sometimes ripened into fruit.'—'to whom we sunk into humble companions without choice or influence, expected only to echo their opinions, facilitate their desires, and accompany their rambles.'—'When the trader pretends anxiety about the payment of his bills, and the beauty remarks how frightfully she looks, then is the lucky moment to talk of riches, or of charms, of the death of lovers, or the honour of a merchant.'

"There is, probably, no mode of constructing a sentence better calculated than this for introducing, without confusion or obscurity, a great number of adjunct ideas. To a mind stored like that of Johnson with much of the best learning of ancient and modern times, and with that knowledge which only an attentive observation of life can bestow; to a sagacity like his, which saw almost intuitively through a chain of consequences, and to a comprehensive mind, such as he possessed, which took in at a glance a great number of collateral circumstances, this structure of a sentence was a necessary instrument

of communication; it gave simplicity to what was complex, and unity to what was manifold. But let the writer who has not Johnson's stock of ideas, his sagacity or his comprehension, beware of imitating. When trivial circumstances are enumerated in this pompous phrase, or words not of distinct meaning exhibited in long-sounding triads, good sense and good taste are disgusted: the dwarf in giant's armour is more contemptible than in his native littleness.

"But however the style of Johnson may be characterised, or however English prose composition may have been improved, by these peculiarities of construction, it is by his nice selection and correct use of words that he is principally distinguished, and the English language principally benefited. The student who, in translating Virgil into other Latin, complained of the difficulty of his task, '*quia optimum quodque verbum Virgilius usurpavit*,' because Virgil had pre-occupied the words best fitted to express his meaning, paid to the Latin poet a compliment which might with equal truth be paid to the English moralist. It would be difficult to convey in so many other words the precise import of any sentence which he has written. There are few if any words synonymous in any language: Johnson, who could distinguish the most minute shades of difference in the meaning of terms, always chose that which belonged exclusively to the idea he would express; and where the language afforded no word that would express his thought with precision, he resorted to a Latin word, and giving it an English dress and the stamp of his own authority, adopted it into the language.

"For the frequency of these adoptions

options Johnson has been blamed; and when an English word could be found commensurate in its meaning to the idea he would convey, and not debased by vulgar use, he was, no doubt, blameable in resorting to another language. That he has sometimes justly incurred this censure it were vain to deny: but it will be found, perhaps, on examination, that he did not often resort to exotic words, when he could have found English words of equal force and equal dignity. He did not generally, with the jealous policy of a conqueror, raise foreigners to favour to the exclusion of native worth; but in the true spirit of a patriot, sought abroad for a supply of those wants which he found to prevail at home.

"The English is, perhaps, the only language sprung from the Gothic stock into which Greek and Latin words can easily be adopted, and it is to this facility of adoption that it owes its superior strength and richness. Johnson, therefore, when he adopts from those languages words more appropriate to his meaning than the English language could furnish, does only that which had been done by others before him, only carries farther an improvement which he did not begin, and adds to those stores which the industry of others had begun to accumulate. This consideration however will not always bear him out blameless; some words he has adopted, for the adoption of which he cannot plead either necessity or use, for he could have found at home words of precisely the same import and of not less dignity. But it is contended that he has not often thus erred; that on the whole he has enriched the English language, and that,

therefore, he deserves not merely impunity but praise.

"Besides these distinguishing features in the style of Johnson, by which he has varied the style of English prose, there is another equally prominent, which it shall suffice barely to mention—the frequent personification of virtues and vices, of habits and of actions.

"Subsequent to Johnson there does not seem to have occurred any variation in the style of English prose, notwithstanding the immense numbers of modern writers under whose labours the press has groaned. Of these the greater number have no peculiar character in composition; others have imitated, some with more and some with less success, the style of Johnson; and some, as a Burke and a Reynolds, have risen in some instances, perhaps, above him. Were we now considering the abstract merits of the authors we mention, it would be unpardonable indeed not to bestow on the vivid energy of Burke, and the mild and chaste elegance of sir Joshua, a large share of attention and panegyric. But such is not the object of this essay: we must therefore pass over these, as we have passed over Goldsmith and others, in silence, because, though the excellence of their writings is singularly great, that excellence does not consist in any variations which they have introduced into style, but in the height to which they have carried those principles of composition which had been cultivated, though less successfully, by others before them.

"In treating of the various styles which have successively appeared from the revolution to the present time, I have purposely omitted some which may be thought from

their singularity to have deserved notice. Such, for instance, is that of Mr. Sterne. This I have passed over without remark, because, in the first instance, it was merely the style of an individual, and has never been generally adopted by English prose writers; and, in the second

place, because it seems to have been the emanation of an eccentric mind, conveying its thoughts in language as capricious, and, perhaps, affected, as the sentiments which suggested them, and as loose as the moral principles by which they were regulated."

REMARKS ON PASTORAL POETRY, and its APPROPRIATE DICTION, IMAGERY, and INCIDENTS.

[From DR. DRAKE'S LITERARY HOURS.]

"IN no species of poetry has imitation been carried on with greater fervility than in what is termed the eclogue; yet it might readily be supposed that he who was alive to the beauties of rural imagery; who possessed a just taste in selecting the more striking and picturesque features of the objects around him, would find in the inexhaustible stores of nature ample materials for decoration, while incidents of sufficient simplicity and interest, neither too coarse on the one hand, nor too refined on the other, adapted to the country, and tinged with national manners and customs, might with no great difficulty be drawn from fact, or arranged by the fancy of the poet. Such combinations, however, under the epithet of pastoral, have not frequently occurred, owing, I conceive, to the mistaken idea that one peculiar form, style and manner, a tidle of hackneyed scenery and sentiment, cannot with propriety be deviated from. Under such a preposterous conception genius must expire, a languid monotony pervade every effort, and the incongruity of the imagery and incident

excite nothing but contempt. Theocritus, the father of pastoral poetry, has done little more than paint the rich and romantic landscape of Sicily, the language and occupations of its rustic inhabitants; a beautiful and original picture, and drawn from the very bosom of simplicity and truth; and had succeeding poets copied him in this respect, and, instead of absurdly introducing the costume and scenery of Sicily, given a faithful representation of their own climate and rural character, our pastorals would not be the intipid things we are now, in general, obliged to consider them, but accurate imitations of nature herself, sketched with a free and liberal pencil, and glowing with appropriate charms.

"Unfortunately, however, for those few authors who possess some originality in pastoral composition, the professed critics in this department, with the exception of one or two, have exclusively and perversely dwelt and commented upon mere copyists, to the utter neglect of poets who might justly aspire to contest the palm of excellence with the Grecian. In most of our
dissertations

dissertations on pastoral poetry, after due encomium on the merits of the Sicilian bard, few authors, save Virgil, Spenser, Pope, Gay, and Phillips are noticed, all, except the second, translators, imitators, or parodists, rather than original writers in this branch of poetry. If rural life no longer present us with shepherds singing and piping for a bowl or a crook, why persist, in violation of all probability, to introduce such characters? If pastoral cannot exist without them, let us cease to compose it; for to Theocritus these personages were objects of hourly observation, and the peasants of Sicily a kind of *improvisatori*. I am persuaded, however, that simplicity in diction and sentiment, a happy choice of rural imagery, such incidents and circumstances as may even now occur in the country, with interlocutors equally removed from vulgarity or considerable refinement, are all that are essential to success. Upon this plan the celebrated Gessner has written his *Idyllia*, compositions

which have secured him immortality, and placed him on a level with the Grecian. By many indeed, and upon no trifling grounds, he is preferred, having with much felicity assumed a medium between the rusticity of Theocritus, and the too refined and luxuriant imagination of Bion and Moschus, preserving at the same time the natural painting of the Sicilian, with the pathetic touches and exquisite sensibility of the contemporary bards.

“One of the most harmonious and beautifully plaintive passages perhaps in the whole compass of Grecian poetry, may be drawn from the “*Epitaph on Bion*” by Moschus; the comparison between vegetative and human life, which, though in some measure foreign to the purport of this paper, I cannot avoid indulging myself and my readers in quoting, with the addition of a couple of versions, and one or two of the most happy imitations; they cannot fail of being acceptable to feeling and to taste.

Αἰ, αἰ, ται μαλαχαὶ μὲν ἔσονται κατὰ καπὸν ὀλωταί,
 Ἡ τὰ γλάρα σελίνα, τὸ τ' εὐθαλὲς ῥῆν ἀνθήν,
 Ὅσσοι σὺ ζῶσιν, καὶ εἰς ἑὸς ἄλλο θνήσκει.
 Ἀυμὲς δ' οἱ μεγάλοι καὶ καστεροὶ γ' ὄσοι ἀνδρες,
 Ὅποτε πρῶτα θανόμεν, ἀνακοῖ ἐν χθονὶ κοῖτα
 Εὐδομεν ἐν μαλα μακρὸν ἀτερμῖνα νύκτερον ὕπνιν.

‘ Though fade crisp anise, and the parsley’s green,
 ‘ And vivid mallows from the garden scene,
 ‘ The balmy breath of spring their life renews,
 ‘ And bids them flourish in their former hues!
 ‘ But we, the great, the valiant, and the wise,
 ‘ When once the seal of death has clos’d our eyes,
 ‘ Lost in the hollow tomb obscure and deep,
 ‘ Slumber, to wake no more, one long unbroken sleep!

‘ POLWHELE.’

‘ The meanest herb we trample in the field,
 ‘ Or in the garden nurture, when its leaf
 ‘ At winter’s touch is blasted, and its place

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‘ Forgotten,

- ‘ Forgotten, soon his vernal buds renews,
- ‘ And from short slumber wakes to life again.
- ‘ Man wakes no more ! Man, valiant, glorious, wise,
- ‘ When death once chills him, sinks in sleep profound,’
- ‘ A long, unconscious, never ending sleep.

‘ GISEBORNE.’

“ The same sentiment may be found in Catullus, Horace, Albinovanus, Spenser, &c. but none have equalled doctors Jortin and Beattie, in imitating, and even improving on this pensive idea.

- ‘ Hei mihi ! lege ratâ sol occidit atque refurgit,
- ‘ Lunaque mutata reparat dispendia formæ :
- ‘ Sidera, purpurei telis extincta diei,
- ‘ Rufus nocte vigent : humiles telluris alumni,
- ‘ Graminis herba virens, et florum picta propago,
- ‘ Quos crudelis hyems lethali tæbe peredit ;
- ‘ Cum Zephyri vox blanda vocat, reditque fereni
- ‘ Temperies anni, redivivo è cespite furgunt.
- ‘ Nos, domini rerum ! nos, magna et pulchra minati !
- ‘ Cum breve ver vitæ robustaque transit æstas,
- ‘ Desicimus : neque nos ordo revolubilis auras
- ‘ Reddit in ætherias, tumuli nec claustra resolvit.

‘ JORTIN.’

- ‘ Ah why thus abandon’d to darkness and woe,
- ‘ Why thus, lonely Philomel, flows thy sad strain ?
- ‘ For spring shall return, and a lover bestow,
- ‘ And thy bosom no trace of misfortune retain.
- ‘ Yet, if pity inspire thee, ah cease not thy lay ;
- ‘ Mourn, sweetest complainer, man calls thee to mourn :
- ‘ O soothe him, whose pleasures like thine pass away—
- ‘ Full quickly they pass—but they never return.
- ‘ Now gliding remote, on the verge of the sky,
- ‘ The moon half extinguish’d her crescent displays ;
- ‘ But lately I mark’d, when majestic on high
- ‘ She shone, and the planets were lost in her blaze.
- ‘ Roll on, thou fair orb, and with gladness pursue
- ‘ The path that conducts thee to splendour again,—
- ‘ But man’s faded glory no change shall renew.
- ‘ Ah fool ! to exult in a glory so vain !
- ‘ ’Tis night, and the landscape is lovely no more ;
- ‘ I mourn, but, ye woodlands, I mourn not for you ;
- ‘ For morn is approaching, your charms to restore,
- ‘ Perfum’d with fresh fragrance and glist’ring with dew.
- ‘ Nor yet for the ravage of winter I mourn,
- ‘ Kind nature the embryo blossom will save.
- ‘ But when shall spring visit the mouldering urn !
- ‘ O when shall it dawn on the night of the grave !

‘ BEATTIE.’

“ The

"The beginning of the quotation from Jortin, and the two first stanzas from Dr. Beattie, are beautiful additions to the original idea. The lines of Beattie indeed flow with the most melancholy and musical expression, steal into the heart itself, and excite a train of pleasing though gloomy association.

"Closing, however, this long digression, let us return to our subject, and here we may observe, that some time before the age of Spenser, a model of pastoral simplicity was given us in a beautiful poem entitled "*Harpalus*," and which is introduced by Dr. Percy into his "*Reliques of ancient English Poetry*." Had Spenser attended more to the unaffected ease and natural expression of this fine old pastoral, he would not, I presume, have interwoven theology with his eclogues, nor chosen such a barbarous and vulgar jargon to convey the sentiments of his shepherds in. Few poets exceed Spenser in the brilliancy of his imagination, and there is a tender melancholy in his compositions which endears him to the reader; but elegant simplicity, so necessary in bucolic poetry, was no characteristic of the author of the "*Fairy Queen*." In every requisite for this province of his divine art, he has been much excelled by Drayton, whose "*Nymphidia*" may be considered as one of the best specimens we have of the pastoral eclogue. The present age seems to have forgotten this once popular poet; an edition indeed has been published of his "*Heroical Epistles*," but various other portions of his works, and more especially his "*Nymphidia*," merit republication.

"After the example of Tasso and Guarini, whose "*Aminta*" and

"*Pastor Fido*" were highly distinguished in the literary world, Fletcher wrote his "*Faithful Shepherdess*," a piece that rivals, and, perhaps, excels the boasted productions of the Italian muse. Equally possessing the elegant simplicity which characterises the "*Aminta*," it has at the same time a richer vein of wild and romantic imagery, and disdains those affected prettinesses which deform the drama of Guarini. This Arcadian comedy of Fletcher's was held in high estimation by Milton; its frequent allusion, and with the finest effect, to the popular superstitions, caught the congenial spirit of our enthusiastic bard. The "*Sad Shepherd*" of Jonson likewise, Browne's "*Britannia's Pastorals*," and Warner's "*Albion's England*," may be mentioned as containing much pastoral description of the most genuine kind. Of the singular production of Warner, there is, I believe, no modern edition, yet few among our elder poets more deserve the attention of the lover of nature and rural simplicity. Some well-chosen extracts from this work are to be found in the collections of Percy and Headley, and his "*Argentile and Curan*" has been the mean of enriching our language with an admirable drama from the pen of Masón. Scott too, in describing his favourite village of Amwell, 'where sleeps our bard by fame 'forgotten,' has offered a due tribute to his memory. Numerous passages estimable for their simple and pathetic beauty might be quoted from his volume; the following will convince the reader, that harmony of versification also, and a terseness and felicity of diction, are among his excellences.

- ‘ She casting down her bashful eyes,
 ‘ Stood senseless then a space,
 ‘ Yet what her tongueless love adjourn’d
 ‘ Was extant in her face.
 ‘ With that she dash’d her on the lips,
 ‘ So dyed double red:
 ‘ Hard was the heart that gave the blow,
 ‘ Soft were those lips that bled.

 ‘ When in the holy-land I pray’d,
 ‘ Even at the holy grave,
 ‘ Forgive me God ! a sigh for sin,
 ‘ And three for love I gave.

 ‘ Each spear that shall but cross thy helme,
 ‘ Hath force to craze my heart :
 ‘ But if thou bleed, of that thy blood
 ‘ My fainting soul hath part.
 ‘ With thee I live, with thee I die,
 ‘ With thee I lose or gain.

 ‘ Methinks I see how churlish looks
 ‘ Estrange thy cheerful face,
 ‘ Methinks thy gestures, talk, and gait,
 ‘ Have chang’d their wonted grace :
 ‘ Methinks thy sometime nimble limbs
 ‘ With armour now are lame :
 ‘ Methinks I see how scars deform
 ‘ Where swords before did maim :
 ‘ I see thee faint with summer’s heat,
 ‘ And droop with winter’s cold.

‘ ALBION’S ENGLAND.’

“That pleasing little poem, “The Fishermen” of Theocritus, probably first suggested to Sannazarius the idea of writing piscatory eclogues, who has been followed with much success by Phineas Fletcher and Brown. Whatever may be thought of the employment, as suited to the eclogue, of those who live on the sea-shore and subsist by catching the produce of the deep, it will readily be allowed that our rivers at least fertilise the most rich and romantic parts of our island, and that they display to the fisher lingering upon their banks the

most lovely scenery, such as mingling with the circumstances of his amusement, and the detail of appropriate incident, would furnish very delightful pictures, and in the genuine style of bucolic poetry. Fletcher and Brown have in this manner rendered their eclogues truly interesting, and even Isaac Walton, though no poet, has in his “Complete Angler” introduced some inimitably drawn pastoral scenes; what can be more exquisite than the following description?

‘ Turn out of the way, a little,
 ‘ good scholar, towards yonder high
 ‘ honey-

'honey-suckle hedge; there we'll
 'sit and sing, whilst this shower
 'falls so gently upon the teeming
 'earth, and gives yet a sweeter smell
 'to the lovely flowers that adorn
 'these verdant meadows. Look,
 'under the broad beech tree, I sat
 'down, when I was last this way
 'a-fishing, and the birds in the ad-
 'joining grove seemed to have a
 'friendly contention with an echo,
 'whose dead voice seemed to live
 'in a hollow tree, near to the brow
 'of that primrose hill; there I sat
 'viewing the silver streams glide
 'silently towards their center, the
 'tempestuous sea; yet sometimes
 'opposed by rugged roots and peb-
 'ble stones, which broke their
 'waves and turned them into
 'foam: and sometimes I beguiled
 'time by viewing the harmless
 'lambs, some sleeping securely in
 'the cool shade, whilst others sport-
 'ed themselves in the cheerful sun;
 'and saw others craving comfort
 'from the swollen udders of their
 'bleating dams. As I thus sat,
 'these and other sights had so fully
 'possessed my soul with content, that
 'I thought, as the poet has hap-
 'pily expressed it,

'I was for that time lifted above earth.

'As I left this place and entered
 'into the next field, a second plea-
 'sure entertained me; 'twas a
 'handsome milk-maid, that had
 'not yet attained to much age and
 'wisdom as to load her mind with
 'any fears of many things that will
 'never be, as too many men too
 'often do; but she cast away all
 'care, and sang like a nightingale.'

"In the pastoral song and ballad
 the moderns, and particularly the
 Scotch and English, have greatly
 excelled; Rowe's "Despairing
 Shepherd" is the sweetest poem of

the kind we have in England, and
 Shenstone's ballad in four parts,
 though not equal in merit to the
 former, has yet long and deserved-
 ly been a favourite with the pub-
 lic. In artless expression of pas-
 sion, however, in truth of colour-
 ing, and *naïveté* of diction, nothing
 can rival the Scotch pastoral songs;
 they originated in a country ab-
 bounding in a rich assemblage of
 rural images; 'smooth and lofty
 'hills,' says Dr. Beattie, speaking of
 the southern provinces of Scotland,
 'covered with verdure; clear
 'streams winding through long
 'and beautiful vallies; trees pro-
 'duced without culture, here strag-
 'gling or single, and there crowd-
 'ing into little groves and bowers;
 'with other circumstances peculiar
 'to the districts I allude to, render
 'them fit for pasturage, and fa-
 'vourable to romantic leisure and
 'tender passions. Several of the
 'old Scotch songs take their names
 'from the rivulets, villages, and
 'hills, adjoining to the Tweed near
 'Melrose; a region distinguished
 'by many charming varieties of
 'rural scenery, and which, whether
 'we consider the face of the coun-
 'try, or the genius of the people,
 'may properly enough be termed
 'the Arcadia of Scotland. And all
 'these songs are sweetly and power-
 'fully expressive of love and ten-
 'derness, and other emotions suited
 'to the tranquillity of pastoral life,'
 "Robene and Makyn," "Ettrick
 Banks," "Eubuchs Marion," and
 several other Scotch pieces, are strik-
 ing proofs of the doctor's assertion.

"To rouse the imagination by
 the charms of novelty, several of
 our poets have transferred the ec-
 logue to the vallies of Persia and
 the deserts of Arabia, to breathe the
 odours of Yemen, or revel mid the
 groves

groves of Circassia. The life of the wandering Arab abounds with events which strike the fancy, and when clothed in the metaphorical and exuberant language of the east, cannot fail to interest our curiosity and excite our feelings. Their independence, hospitality, and love of poetry, are beautiful features of their character, and form a strong contrast with the more luxurious and servile existence of the Persian. In Arabia itself nothing can be more opposed than the two districts which are known by the epithets of *petræa* and *felix*; a dreary and boundless waste of sand, without shade, shelter, or water, scorched by the burning rays of the sun, and intersected by sharp and naked mountains, while, instead of refreshing breezes, breathe the most deadly vapours and whirlwinds, and which rasing the sandy ocean, threaten to overwhelm the affrighted caravan, are descriptive of the one part, while shady groves, green pastures, streams of pure water, fruits of the most delicious flavour, and air of the most balmy fragrance, characterise the other. From the banks of the Tigris, from the deserts of Arabia, from the shaded plains of Georgia and Circassia, has

our inimitable Collins drawn his scenery and characters, and no eclogues of ancient or modern times, in pathetic beauty, in richness and wildness of description, in simplicity of sentiment and manners, can justly be esteemed superior. His "*Hassan, or the Camel-Driver*," is, I verily believe, one of the most tenderly sublime, most sweetly-descriptive poems in the cabinet of the Muses. The "*Solyman*" of sir William Jones, and the "*Oriental Eclogues*" of Scott of Amwell, have also considerable merit; the former is an exquisite specimen of the Arabian eclogue, and the "*Serim*" and "*Li-Po*" of the latter have many picturesque touches, and much pleasing moral.

"A poet of fine imagination, and great pathetic powers, has lately presented us with "*Botany-Bay Eclogues*," a subject fruitful in novelty both of scenery and character; nor has he failed strongly to interest our feelings. In "*Elinor*," the first of his four eclogues, he has more particularly availed himself of the peculiar features of the country; the following passage vividly paints the state of this yet savage land.

‘Welcome ye marshy heaths! ye pathless woods!
 ‘Where the rude native rests his wearied frame
 ‘Beneath the sheltering shade; where, when the storm,
 ‘As rough and bleak it rolls along the sky,
 ‘Benumbs his naked limbs, he flies to seek
 ‘The dripping shelter. Welcome ye wild plains
 ‘Unbroken by the plough, undelved by hand
 ‘Of patient rustic; where for lowing herds,
 ‘And for the music of the bleating flocks,
 ‘Alone is heard the kangaroo’s sad note,
 ‘Deepening in distance.

‘SOUTHEY.’

"Mrs. West too, in imitation of Stanstone, has given us some elegant pastoral ballad of Rowe and
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the superstition and imagery of the Scottish highlands are introduced, has the merit of originality.

"If what has been now observed should induce the unprejudiced reader to reprove the authors alluded to, he will probably be inclined to admit that, in pastoral poetry, Virgil, Spenser, Pope, Gay, and Phillips, must yield the palm to Tasso, Warner, Drayton, and the two Fletchers, to Rowe, Ramsay, Shenstone, Gessner, and Collins; yet most of our critics in this department have considered the former as the only genuine disciples of Theocritus, and have scarce deigned to mention any of the latter. Some indeed have noticed the Italians and the courtly Fontenelle, but none, except Blair, though treating professedly upon this subject, have applauded Gessner, and as to Warner and Drayton, save a few observations with regard to the latter from the elegant pen of Dr. Aikin, they have almost suffered oblivion. Virgil, excluding his first bucolic, is a mere, though a very pleasing, imitator; and whatever may be thought of Spenser, Pope has certainly nothing but his musical versification to recommend him. The purport of Gay seems to have been parody and burlesque, and Phillips, and I may here also add Lytton, though superior perhaps to Pope, have little or no originality. It is no wonder, there-

fore, that modern pastoral poetry should appear so despicable contrasted with the ancient, when our best and most original writers are unappealed to; when to quote Pope, Gay, and Phillips, Warner, Drayton, Collins, and Gessner, are neglected. These four authors assuredly rescue modern pastoral and eclogue from the charge of insipidity. Not servilely treading in the footsteps of Theocritus and Virgil, they have chalked out, and embellished with the most beautiful simplicity, paths of their own; their flowers are congenial to the soil, and display their tints with a brilliancy and fragrance which no sickly exotic can ever hope to emulate. To this remark the oriental eclogue may be opposed, but let it be observed, that the manners still exist, and have all the freshness of living nature; the shepherds of Arabia are what they were a thousand years ago, and a well-drawn picture of their pastoral customs and country must be highly relished by the lovers of simple and independent life. In Warner and Drayton our own country manners, without exaggeration or much embellishment, are naturally and correctly given, and in Gessner, the domestic affections, flowing from the bosom of more refined sensibility, and very picturesque description, are clothed in language of the utmost simplicity."

PHILOSOPHICAL PAPERS.

INVESTIGATION of the ORIGIN of BASALTES.

[From the third VOLUME of TRAVELS into the TWO SICILIES, and some Parts of the APPENINES, by the Abbe LAZZARO SPALLANZANI.]

LITERARY disputes and differences of opinion frequently arise from want of previously fixing the state of the controversy; that is, from not defining in precise and clear terms the thing in question. Before we inquire what is the origin of basaltes, that is to say, whether they are the result of the action of fire or water, it will be proper to decide what we mean by the term; or rather what the ancients understood by this word, which is the name they gave to a certain kind of stones. It is now generally known, because it has been repeated by a hundred writers, though perhaps by the greater part without due consideration, that the word basaltes is used by Pliny and Strabo to denominate an opaque and solid stone, of the hardness, and nearly of the colour, of iron, commonly configured in prisms, and originally brought from Ethiopia; of which stone the Egyptians made statues, sarcophagi, mortars, and various utensils. This premised, it remains to inquire whether this stone was of volcanic origin or not, by repairing to the places where it was found, and attentively examining

the country to discover whether it bears the characteristics of volcanization. This labour, however, has not, to my knowledge, been hitherto undertaken by any one; but M. Dolomieu, to whom lithology and the history of volcanos are so much indebted, has discovered, during his stay at Rome, an equivalent, in some measure, with respect to the solution of this question. Among the many noble monuments in that superb capital which are instructive not only to the admirers of the arts, but to the contemplators of nature, are a great number of statues, sarcophagi, and mortars brought from Egypt, which have all the characters attributed to basaltes, and likewise preserve the name. These he has studied with the greatest attention, and declares that the stone of which they are formed manifests no sign of the action of fire. Among other Egyptian monuments, he observed some of a green basaltes, which change colour, and assume a brown tinge, similar to that of bronze, on being exposed to the slightest heat. All those that have been burned have acquired this colour; which proves, as he very judiciously observes,

serves, that the green basaltes have never suffered the action of fire.

“ The Egyptian stones, therefore, to which the ancients gave the appellation of basaltes, have been produced by nature in the humid way. These observations perfectly agree with those of Bergmann on the trapps produced in the same way; and which have, both externally and internally, the same characteristics with the basaltes.

“ Werner, taking the term basaltes in a wider sense, and understanding by it all those columnar stones which, by their prismatic configuration, resemble the Egyptian basaltes, supposes both to have the same origin, and adduces, as a proof of that origin, the basaltes of the hill of Schellenberg, which are the effect of a precipitation by means of water; and concludes that ‘all basaltes are formed in the humid way.’

“ Though I am willing to bestow the praise due to his discovery, I cannot admit his conclusion; for though many basaltes, taking that term in the sense of this author and other naturalists, may derive their origin from water, many others are certainly the product of fire.

“ I shall not repeat what various volcanists have written on this subject, but merely refer the reader to what I have already said relative to the basaltine lavas of Vulcano and Felicuda. With respect to the former island, I have remarked, in chap. XIII. that I found within its crater a range of articulated prisms, with unequal sides and angles, which, in part, composed one whole with a mass of lava; and, in part, were detached from it. I have also there described the qualities and nature of these prisms.

In chap. XVII. I have particularly described the litoral lavas of Felicuda, which, near the water, are prismatic.

“ It is therefore evident, that, in these two situations, the origin of the basaltes there found cannot be what it has been assumed, generally, by Werner and other Germans, but that it is truly volcanic. It consequently appears that Nature obtains the same effect by two different ways. In the fossil kingdom, one of her grand operations is crystallization; which, though it be most frequently effected in the humid way, is sometimes produced in the dry; as we see, among other instances, in iron, which Nature crystallizes within the earth, both by the means of water and of fire, in which latter way the beautiful specular iron of Siromboli is produced. Nor are there wanting other instances, of the crystallization of the same metal by the action of fire. And did other metals exist in the entrails of volcanos, and the necessary circumstances concur to their crystallization, it is indubitable that this may be effected by fire as well as by water. Thus we see that, by taking certain precautions, metallic substances assume a regular and symmetrical disposition within the crucible. The same is true of basaltes, the prismatic configuration of which, though not strictly a crystallization, has the most exact resemblance to it. Observation, likewise, teaches us that the same combination of earths, according to different circumstances, forms prismatic basaltes, sometimes in the humid, and sometimes in the dry way. The stone called trapp, found in the mountains of Sweden, is configured in prisms, though those mountains are of aqueous origin; and the horn-

horn-stone, which is so analogous to the trapp, has the same configuration at Felicuda, notwithstanding it is a true lava. In the same island, likewise, other basaltiform lavas have for their base shoerl in mass, and those of the crater of Vulcano, the petrosilex; which two stones, according to the observations of M. Dolomieu, form some of the Egyptian basaltes, which are a work of the waters. These two agents, fire and water, are not, in fact, so different in their action as we might at first be inclined to imagine. The prismatic figure in the humid way arises in the soft earth by the evaporation of the water; in consequence of which the parts dry, contract their volume, and split into polygonal pieces. The same phenomenon may be remarked in margaceous earths, imbued with water, and exposed to the ventilation of the air; and I have frequently seen the mud of rivers, when dried in the sun, in summer, to make pottery-ware, divide, when it became dry, into small polyedrous tablets. Similar configurations are produced in different lavas by the congelation and contraction that take place by the privation of the fire which held them in a state of fluidity.

“It appears to me, therefore that the dispute relative to the origin of basaltes is at an end; nor would there be any difference of opinion if, instead of generalizing ideas and fabricating systems, naturalists would make an impartial use of their own observations and those of others. Some volcanists, perceiving that the generation of various basaltes is evidently igneous, have immediately inferred that all must have the same origin. In consequence of this principle,

they have drawn lines or zones, in different parts of the globe, indicative of extinct volcanos, which they have interred from finding basaltes there; and thus portrayed a picture of prodigious dimensions, representing the ruins caused in the world by subterranean conflagrations. Other naturalists, on the contrary, being convinced that certain basaltes are the produce of water, have assigned to all the same origin. From the facts now adduced, it is, however, sufficiently evident that both these hypotheses are erroneous. The basaltes, taking the term generally, when examined detached, do not bear exclusively any decisive marks of their origin. Local circumstances alone can determine to which of the two principles it is to be ascribed; to discover which, we must attentively examine whether the places where these figured stones are found exhibit any indubitable signs of volcanization. Yet even these are frequently not sufficient, as there are many hills and mountains which owe their origin to both the great agents of nature, fire and water, in which case it will be necessary to redouble our attention, and fix it on the substances originating from each; to determine, by the relations these have to the basaltes, from which of the two the latter derive their formation. By diligently employing these means, we shall be certain, without fear of error, to elucidate and advance the inquiries relative to basaltes, and be enabled accurately to determine which of them are to be ascribed to the action of water, and which to that of fire.

“But here a second question occurs, not less interesting than the first, relative to the cause why certain

tain lavas, differing from innumerable others, become basaltiform; since, if this configuration depended on congelation, it must be found in all lavas when they had ceased to flow. The first writer, to my knowledge, who has adverted to this, is M. de Luc, who, in the second volume of his *Travels*, is of opinion that they have taken this regular figure in the sea, by the sudden congelation which took place on their flowing into it in a liquid state; other secondary circumstances, however, concurring, such as a greater homogeneity, and a certain attraction of their parts.

“ Of the same opinion is M. Dolomieu; though he does not deny that even porous lavas may sometimes, likewise, take the form of prisms. The former of these opinions is little less than hypothetical, while the latter is supported by facts too important to be cursorily stated. M. Dolomieu observes that all the currents of the lavas of Etna, the periods of which are preserved in history, have constantly experienced two effects in their congelation. Those which have cooled in the air, have divided, in consequence of the contraction they have suffered by the loss of their caloric (heat), into irregular masses; while all the others, which have precipitated into the sea, have, on their sudden congelation, contracted in a regular form, and divided into prismatic columns, which form they have only taken in the parts in contact with the water of the sea. Of this he met with evident proofs along the shore which extends from Catania to Castello di Jaci; and the famous lava of 1669, though unsuited to the prismatic form, from being spongy and little

in quantity, yet in some parts exhibits a kind of rude imperfect prisms.

“ Among the objects to which I was attentive in my volcanic travels through the two Sicilies, the prismatic lavas were certainly not the last. While making the circuit of the Eolian islands, of Etna and of Ischia, I constantly observed carefully the conformation of the stony currents which fall into the sea. I have remarked, when treating of Ischia, that this configuration is frequently prismatic, and that the prisms are constantly formed in those parts of the currents which immerse into the water, and reach to a few feet above the level. This observation of mine certainly accords admirably with those of M. Dolomieu; the situation of these prisms clearly showing that they were formed at the time of the immersion of the lava into the sea, which, when it flowed, rose to where they begin to appear. But, though I agree with him in this, I cannot in the remainder of my observations. Alicuda, as well as Felicuda, presents us with numerous currents and rocks that descend into the sea; and they are likewise found at Saline, Lipari, Stromboli, Panaria, Basiluzzo, and Vulcano; but these rocks and currents, which together extend over a space of more than sixty miles, do not afford the slightest indication of prisms.

“ As I went by sea from Messina to Catania, and returned to Messina from Catania, I had an opportunity twice to examine, at my leisure, that tract of shore, which, for the space of nearly three-and-twenty miles, is volcanic. One third of it, beginning at Catania, and proceeding to Castello di Jaci, consists of prisms more or less

less characterised, and such as they have been described by M. Doimieu; but the other two thirds, though equally composed of lavas with the former, and for the most part falling perpendicularly into the sea, have no such figure; and only present, here and there, irregular fissures and angular pieces, such as are, generally, observable in all lavas, which separate more or less on their congelation.

"In my circuit by sea round the shores of Isthia, I was particularly attentive, as I was every where else, to the conformation of the lavas; and here there seemed a great probability of finding them prismatic, from the abundance of them which in different directions and angles fall into the sea: but I have already observed, when treating of the island, and I now repeat it, that I did not find one with a regular form.

"At Naples, the prismatic lavas of the currents of Vesuvius, under the park of Portici, have been much spoken of. When I made my observations on this burning mountain, I had not time to visit these lavas. It is with great pleasure, therefore, that I learn they have been examined by a person so well experienced in matters of this nature as the chevalier Gioeni undoubtedly is. But the celebrated prisms disappeared in the presence of so accurate an observer. The following is the account he gives; which is of considerable importance to our present subject:—"I wished to examine the basaltes which were pointed out to me as to be found on the sea-shore, under the royal park of Portici; but they proved to be only a compact lava, with perpendicular and extremely irregular fissures, forming quadrangular, and some-

times trapezoidal pilasters, which have been employed in buildings. Similar fissures are likewise observed in tufas, and earths of different kinds, and can never mislead any person accustomed to them, and acquainted with their true causes.'

"By this faithful relation of facts, I flatter myself, I have clearly shown that it cannot be supported as a general hypothesis, that flowing lavas take a prismatic configuration from the sudden coagulation they suffer on falling into the sea.

"It may, perhaps, be objected, that these prisms once existed in the lavas I observed, but that the irresistible violence of the waves, in a long series of years, has corroded and destroyed them.

"Every person acquainted with the subject must immediately perceive how little solidity there is in this objection. I admit that the violence of the sea may, in some lavas, have totally destroyed these prisms; but that it can have had that effect on all, and through so extensive a space, is utterly improbable. Nor is it conceivable that Felicuda, among the Eolian isles, should still preserve its prisms perfect, while the rest of those islands have entirely lost theirs, notwithstanding they are all equally exposed to the shocks of the waves.

"I cannot here omit another remark. It is certain that more than one of these islands were not formed by one eruption, but by successive ejections of lavas accumulating on each other; and in some deep fissures, occasioned by the sea, this successive formation is discoverable by the eye, as we may perceive five or six different strata of lava one above the other. The internal strata, in very remote pe-

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riods, having flowed into the sea, as the external flowed afterwards; it is evident that, if the latter, on touching the water, became prismatic, the same change must have taken place, also, in the former; which being defended from the injuries of the sea, by the external strata, must still preserve their prismatic configuration, of which, however, no traces remain. We must, therefore, conclude that innumerable lavas may fall into the sea, without having their external appearance in the least changed by the sudden congelation which then takes place.

“ That the prismatic configuration of lavas is not always the effect of their immersion in the waters of the sea, likewise appears from many of them taking the same form in the air; of which we have a distinguished example in the crater of Vulcano. Here, certainly, we cannot suppose any intervention of the waters of the sea. Similar observations have been made on Mount Etna by the Chevalier Gioeni. ‘ I have observed,’ says he, in the work before cited, ‘ basaltic columns, at the summit of Etna, and nearly on a level with the base of its vast crater, where there is certainly no probability of the sea ever having reached; and I have frequently found polyhedral basaltic perfectly characterized in excavations made by men in the centre of lavas, which have issued from the sides of Mount Etna, in periods much posterior to the retiring of the sea.’

“ I should, however, appear deficient in candour, did I not mention that M. Dolomieu admits that lavas may sometimes, in the air, assume the prismatic form, if they fall into clefts and fissures where they sud-

denly cool, of which he adduces an example in the islands of Porza.

“ I shall only remark, that I do not perceive the absolute necessity of the fissures in this case; since we frequently find lavas with this configuration in perfectly open places; as I have seen in the great mouth of Vulcano. And with this opinion the observations of Gioeni on Etna certainly accord; for, had he remarked the concurrence of such a circumstance, he, undoubtedly, would have mentioned it.

“ What conclusion, then, ought we to deduce from all these facts and observations?

“ First: that many basaltiform lavas have assumed this organization on coagulating within the sea.

“ Secondly: that others have taken the same form, merely in cooling in the open air.

“ Thirdly: that innumerable other lavas have not taken this figure, either in the sea or in the air.

“ It appears, at first view, that these differences depend on the different nature of the lavas themselves. This opinion, at least, is rendered probable by what we observe in earths penetrated with water, which, in drying, take, more or less, prismatic forms, as has been observed frequently in the argillaceous kinds. I have seen, when a turbid torrent has been introduced into a ditch through an argillaceous marle, the latter, in drying, divide into polyhedral pieces; but when the water passed through chalk, or calcareous marle, the greater part of the pieces were amorphous. When we however observe lavas with requisite attention, this conformation in them seems to be effected differently.

“ It has already been said, that several of the prismatic lavas of

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Felicuda have for their base smooth in mass; but it is true that other congenerous lavas of the same island, which form as it were walls perpendicular to the sea, are smooth over their whole superficies. A similar smoothness is observable in some of those of Mount Etna, on the shore between Messina and Catania, which have for their base the horn-stone; though others extremely resembling them, between Jaci Reale and Catania, are formed in prisms.

"Compactness and solidity are, likewise, not a necessary condition in lavas, to this appropriate crystallisation. This has already been remarked by M. Dolomieu; and I have observed that many amorphous lavas on the shores of several of the Eolian islands are more compact than the prismatic lavas of Felicuda.

"What then can be the intrinsic circumstance of the lava which determines it thus to cleave in the prismatic form? I confess I am ignorant: and who can say that we do not seek it in vain within the lava, since it may be extrinsic and adventitious? Such, certainly, appears to be the opinion of M. de Luc; and, more expressly, that of M. Dolomieu, who, to explain the phenomenon of volcanic prisms, has recourse to a sudden congelation, and instantaneous contraction of lavas.

"The facts which we have adduced relative to lavas, both prismatic and not prismatic, it has been seen, do not always accord with those related by the French naturalist. But even on this supposition, which is incontestable, may we not retain the same principle of explanation, which, to say the truth, appears to be sufficient, with some requisite modifi-

cations? These I will endeavour to suggest, illustrating my conjecture by the two cases above adduced; the one, that of the lavas which take the form of prisms merely from the contact of the atmosphere, as in Vulcano and near the summit of Etna; the other, that of the lavas which refuse to take such a form even within the sea, as at Ischia, in some parts of the base of Etna, and in all the Eolian isles except Felicuda.

As to the former, may not a sudden coagulation and contraction have taken place in some lavas from the mere influence of the atmosphere, though the lava was not included in any cleft or fissure? It is sufficient that it be suddenly deprived of the caloric (heat) by which it is penetrated, and which rendered it rarefied and fluid. To this deprivation a lava of little thickness will be very liable; since a body loses its heat the sooner, the less its thickness and density. This sudden contraction may also be produced by the circumstances of the atmosphere; as should a strong wind, of a very cold temperature, blow at the time, the melted lavas in our crucibles will be found to give greater weight to this latter conjecture. If they are taken from the furnace, and caused to pass through a heat gradually less; their surface, as they cool, will only split into a few cracks, of little depth, and usually irregular; but, when they are immediately, in the winter time, carried into the cold air, the fissures, besides being deeper, will frequently be disposed in such a manner, as to form small polyhedral prisms, which may easily be detached from the rest of the lava.

"With respect to those lavas which do not assume a prismatic form,

form, though they fall into the sea, it is certain that, to take that conformation, their mass must have a strong degree of effervescence and dilatation, and that it must be deeply penetrated with the igneous fluid, otherwise the contraction necessary to produce prisms cannot take place. But many currents which descend from the summit of burning mountains to the sea, must have lost their effervescence with their heat in so long a course, and scarcely retain sufficient to continue their motion downwards, which, perhaps, would cease, were it not for the impelling gravity of the lava, which frequently falls into the sea perpendicularly.

"Such is the hypothesis by which I would explain the cause why some lavas have assumed a prismatic conformation without any concurrence of the sea-water, and others exhibit no appearance of it in places where they have immersed into the sea. I nevertheless leave every one to form his own opinion; and should an explanation of these important facts be discovered preferable to mine, which I consider as only conjectural, I shall receive the communication of it with sincere gratitude, and adopt it with pleasure."

GEOLOGICAL FACTS, corroborative of the MOSAIC ACCOUNT of the DELUGE, with an INQUIRY into the ORIGIN, PROGRESS, and still PERMANENT CONSEQUENCES of that CATASTROPHE, by RICHARD KIRWAN, ESQ. LL. D. F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.

[From the sixth Volume of the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY.]

"1st. ACCORDING to Don Ulloa, shells were found on a mountain in Peru at the height of 14220 feet, 2 Buff. Epoque, 263. Now I have already shewn*, that no mountains higher than 8500 feet were formed since the creation of fish, or, in other words, that fish did not exist until the original ocean had subsided to the height of eight thousand five hundred feet above its present level. Therefore the shells found at more elevated stations were left there by a subsequent inundation. Now an inundation that reached such heights could not

be partial, but must have extended over the whole globe.

"2dly, The bones of elephants and of rhinoceri, and even the intire carcase of a rhinoceros, have been found in the lower parts of Siberia. As these animals could not live in so cold a country, they must have been brought thither by an inundation from warmer and very distant climates, betwixt which and Siberia mountains above nine thousand feet high intervene. It may be replied that Siberia, as we have already shewn, was not originally as cold as it is at present;

* In a former essay.

which is true, for probably its original heat was the same as that of many islands in the same latitude at this day, but still it was too cold for elephants and rhinoceri, and between the climates which they might have then inhabited and the places they are now found in too many mountains intercede to suppose them brought thither by any other means but a general inundation. Besides, Siberia must have attained its present temperature at the time these animals were transported, else they must have all long ago putrified.

“3dly, Shells known to belong to shores under climates very distant from each other are in sundry places found mixed promiscuously with each other; one sort of them, therefore, must have been transported by an inundation; the promiscuous mixture can be accounted for on no other supposition.

“These appear to me the most unequivocal geologic proofs of a general deluge. To other facts generally adduced to prove it, another origin may be ascribed; thus the bones of elephants found in Italy, France, Germany, and England, might be the remains of some brought to Italy by Pyrrhus or the Carthaginians, or of those employed by the Romans themselves; some are said to have been brought to England by Claudius. 4 Phil. Trans. Abr. 2d part. 242. When these bones, however, are accompanied with marine remains, their origin is no longer ambiguous. Thus also the bones and teeth of whales, found near Maestricht, are not decisively of diluvian origin, as whales have often been brought down as low as lat. 48°. 34 Roz. 201. Nay sometimes they strike on the coast of Italy. 1 Targioni Tozzetti, 386.

“Yet, to explain the least ambiguous of these phenomena, without having recourse to an universal deluge, various hypotheses have been framed.

“Some have imagined that the axis of the earth was originally parallel to that of the ecliptic, which would produce a perpetual spring in every latitude, and consequently that elephants might exist in all of them. But the ablest astronomers having demonstrated the impossibility of this parallelism, it is unnecessary to examine its consequences; it only deserves notice that the obliquity of the equator is rather diminishing than increasing. See La Lande in 44 Roz. 212. Besides, why are these bones accompanied by marine remains? Others, from this nutation of the earth's axis, have supposed that its poles are continually shifting, and consequently that they might have originally been where the equator now is, and the equator where the poles now are; thus Siberia might have, in its turn, been under the equator. But as the nutation of the earth's axis is retrogressive every nine years, and never exceeds ten degrees, this hypothesis is equally rejected by astronomers. 44 Roz. 210. 2 Bergum. Erde Kugel, 305. The pyramids of Egypt demonstrate that the poles have remained unaltered these three thousand years.

“The 3d hypothesis is that of Mr. Buffon, to which the unfortunate Bailly has done the honour of acceding; according to him the earth, having been originally in a state of fusion, and for many years red hot, at last cooled down to the degree that rendered it habitable. This hypothesis he was led to imagine from the necessity of admitting that the globe was, at least to a certain distance beneath

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its surface, originally in a soft state; the solution of its solid parts in water he thought impossible, falsely imagining that the whole globe must have been in a state of solution, whereas the figure of the earth requires the liquidity of it only a few miles beneath its surface. Epoques, 10 and 35. If he had trod the path of experiments he would have found both the hardness and transparency, of what he calls his primitive glass, and thinks the primitive substance of the globe, namely quartz, to be altered in a strong heat with a loss of 3 per cent. of its weight, and that so far from having been a glass, it is absolutely infusible. The loss of weight, he must have seen, could be ascribed to nothing else but the loss of its watery particles, and that therefore it must have been originally formed in water; he would have found that some feldspars lose 40 per cent. and others at least 2 per cent. by heat; he would have perceived that mica, which he thinks only an exfoliation of quartz, to be in its composition essentially different. He certainly found their crystallisation inexplicable, for he does not even attempt to explain it.

"But waving this, and a multitude of other insuperable difficulties in his hypothesis, and advertising only to the solution he thinks his theory affords, of the phenomenon of the existence of the bones of elephants, and the carcase of a rhinoceros in Siberia, I say it is defective even in that respect. For allowing his supposition that Siberia was at any time of a temperature so suited to the constitution of these animals that they might live in it, yet the remains lately found in that country cannot be supposed to belong to animals that ever lived in it:

"1st, Because though they are found at the distance of several hundred miles from the sea, yet they are surrounded by genuine marine vegetables, which shews that they were brought thither together with those vegetables.

2dly, Because they are generally found in accumulated heaps, and it is not to be imagined that while alive they sought a common burial place no more than they at present do in India.

"3dly, Because the rhinoceros was found intire and unputrified, whereas if the country was warm when he perished, this could not have happened.

"4thly, Because in no very distant latitude, namely that of Greenland, the bones of whales, and not of elephants, are found on the mountains, consequently that latitude must have been in that ancient period sufficiently cold to maintain whales, as it is at this day; and that cold we know to be very considerable, and incompatible with the proximity of a climate suited to elephants. 17 N. Comment. Petrop. l. 576. 1 Act. Petrop. 55. Renov. 73. Therefore the animals whose remains are now found in Siberia could not have lived in it.

"The 4th hypothesis is that of Mr. Edward King, but much amplified and enlarged by Mr. de Luc. This justly celebrated philosopher is of opinion that the actual continents were, before the deluge, the bottom or bed of the ancient ocean, and that the deluge consisted in the submersion of the ancient continents, which consequently form the bottom or bed of our actual oceans, consequently our actual mountains were all formed in the antediluvian ocean, and thus shells might be left on their highest summits.

" In this hypothesis the ancient continents must have existed in those tracts now covered by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; it so, I do not see how the elephants could have been brought into Siberia, or a whole rhinoceros found in it: for Siberia being then the bottom of some ocean, the sea must have moved from it to cover the sinking continents, instead of moving towards it, to strew over it their spoils.—If it be said that these animals were carried into the sea before the flood, then, assuredly, the rhinoceros should have been devoured, and only his bones left.

" To say nothing of the incompatibility of this system with the principal geologic phenomena, mentioned in my former essay, and of the destruction of at least all the graminivorous fish that must have followed from their transfer to a soil not suited to them, it is evidently inconsistent with the Mosaic account of this catastrophe, which account these philosophers however admit.

" Moses ascribes the deluge to two principal causes, a continual rain for forty days, and the eruption of the waters of the great abyss. Now to what purpose a rain of forty days to overwhelm a continent that was to be immersed under a whole ocean? He tells us the waters increased on the continents a certain number of days, rested thereon another period of days, and then returned. Do not these expressions imply a permanent ground on which they increased and rested, and from which they afterwards retreated? As the retreat followed the advance, is it not clear that they retreated from the same spaces on which they had before advanced and rested?

" Mr. de Luc replies, that in the 13th verse of the 6th chapter of

Genesis, it is said the earth should be destroyed, and that Mr. Michælis so translates it. However it is plain, from what has been just mentioned, that Moses did not understand such a destruction as should cause it to disappear totally and for ever; he tells us that the waters stood 15 cubits over the highest mountains; now as he has no where mentioned the antediluvian mountains, but has the postdiluvian, it is plain that it is to these his narration relates, and these he tells us were at the time of the deluge covered with water, and uncovered when the waters diminished; he never distinguished the postdiluvian from the antediluvian, and therefore must have considered them as the same.

" Nor did Noah himself believe the ancient continents destroyed, for he took the appearance of an olive branch to be a sign of the diminution of the flood. This he certainly believed to have grown on the ancient continent, and could not expect it to have shot up from the bottom of the sea.—Mr. de Luc tells us that this olive grew on an antediluvian island, and that these islands, being part of the antediluvian ocean, were not flooded—it is plain, however, Noah did not think so, else he would not judge the appearance of the olive to be a sign of the diminution of the waters. Where is it mentioned or what renders it necessary to infer that islands existed before the flood? If islands did exist, and were to escape the flood, so might their inhabitants also, contrary to the express words of the text.

" It would surely be much more convenient for Noah, his family and animals, to have taken refuge in one of them, than to remain pent up in the ark.

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"The dove, Moses tells us, returned the first time she was let out of the ark, finding no place whereon to rest her foot; she consequently could not discover the island, whereas the raven never returned, plainly because he found carcases whereon to feed, therefore these carcases were not swallowed up, as Mr. de Luc would have it. Moses tells us that at the cessation of the flood the fountains of the deep were stopped or shut up; therefore, in his apprehension, instead of the ancient continents sinking into the deep, the waters of the abyss flowed from their sources upon that continent, and again returned; from all which it follows that this hypothesis is as indefensible as the foregoing.

"Passing over the systems of Burner, Woodward, and Whiston, which have been repeatedly refuted, I recur to the account of this great revolution given by Moses himself, taken in its plain literal sense, as the only one that appears perfectly consistent with all the phenomena now known, of which I shall find occasion to mention many; he plainly ascribes it to a supernatural cause, namely the express intention of God to punish mankind for their crimes. We must therefore consider the deluge as a miraculous effusion of water, both from the clouds and from the great abyss; if the waters, situated partly within and partly without the caverns of the globe, were once sufficient to cover even the highest mountains, as I have shewn in a former essay, they must have been sufficient to do so a second time when miraculously educed out of those caverns.

"Early geologists, not attending to these facts, thought all the waters of the ocean insufficient; it

was supposed that its mean depth did not exceed a quarter of a mile, and that only half of the surface of the globe was covered by it; on these data Keil computed that twenty-eight oceans would be requisite to cover the whole earth to the height of four miles, which he judged to be that of the highest mountains, a quantity at that time considered as extravagant and incredible, but a further progress in mathematical and physical knowledge has since shewn the different seas and oceans to contain at least forty-eight times more water than they were supposed to do.

"Mr. De la Place, calculating their average depth, not from a few vague and partial soundings, for such they have ever been, (the polar regions having been never sounded, particularly the Antarctic) but from a strict application of the theory of tides to the height to which they are known to rise in the main ocean, demonstrates that a depth, reaching only to half a league, or even two or three leagues, is incompatible with the Newtonian theory, as no depth under four leagues could reconcile it with the phenomena—The vindication of the Mosaic history does not require near so much. The extent of the sea is known to be far greater than Keil supposed, that of the earth scarcely passing $\frac{1}{3}$ of the surface of the globe.

"The possibility and reality of the deluge being thus established, I shall next endeavour to trace its origin, progress, and still permanent consequences. That it originated in and proceeded from the great southern ocean below the equator, and thence rushed on the northern hemisphere, I take to be a natural inference from the following facts:

" 1st. The southern ocean is the greatest collection of waters on the face of the globe.

" 2d. In the northern latitudes beyond 45° and 55° we find the animal spoils of the southern countries, and the marine exuviae of the southern seas, but in the southern latitudes we find no remains of animals, vegetables or shells belonging to the northern seas, but those only that belong to the neighbouring seas. Thus in Siberia, to return to the already frequently mentioned phenomenon, we find the remains of elephants and rhinoceri accompanied by marine vegetables, and also with shells that do not belong to the northern ocean. 1 *Epoques*, 418. They must therefore have been conveyed thither by the more distant Indian sea overflowing these parts; as the elephants very naturally crowded together on the approach of the inundation, they were conveyed in flocks, and hence their bones are found in accumulated heaps, as should be expected. But in Greenland, which is still more distant, only the remains of whales are found on the mountains. Crantz *Histoire Generale de Voy.* vol. xix. 105. So in the southern latitudes, as at Talaguana in Chili, latitude 36° S. the shells found on the tops of the hills are those of the neighbouring sea. 2 *Uloa Voy.* p. 197. So those found on the hills between Suez and Cairo are the same as those now found in the red sea. Shaw's *Voyages*, vol. ii.

" 3dly, The traces of a violent shock or impression from the south are as yet perceptible in many countries. Thus Mr. Patin attests as to the mountains of Dauria on the south-east limits of Siberia; he tells us that the more eastern extremities of the mountains appear to be broken off by the impetuosity of

an ancient ocean rushing from east to west, that the fragments carried to the west in some measure protected the more western. 38 *Roz.* 230, 238. And that in general the mountains of this country were so disordered (by the shock), that the miners are obliged to work at hazard. *Ibid.* 226. Steller makes the same remarks on the mountains of Kamtschatka. 51 *Phil. Trans.* part ii. p. 479. Storr, Hœpfner, and Saussure, inform us that the inundation that invaded Switzerland proceeded from the south, but its impression was modified by another event which I shall presently mention. 1 *Helvet. Magaz.* 173, 175. 4 *Helvet. Magaz.* 307. Lafius tells us that the mountains of the Hartz suggest the same inference. Hartz, 95.

" 4thly, The very shape of the continents, which are all sharpened towards the south, where washed by the southern ocean, indicate that so forcible an impression was made on them as nothing but the mountains could resist, as the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Cormorin, the southern extremity of New Holland, and that of Patagonia. Foster's *Observations*, p. 11, 12.

" To these geological proofs perhaps I may be permitted to add the tradition of the orthodox Hindus, that the globe was divided into two hemispheres, and that the southern was the habitation of dæmons that warred upon the gods. 3 *Asiatic Researches*, 51 and 52. This war is commonly thought to be an allegorical description of the flood, and hence the olive branch, denoting a diminution of the flood, became a symbol of peace.

" Did not Noah reside on the borders of the southern ocean, otherwise he could not see that the great abyss was opened? and did not

not an inundation from the south-east drive the ark north-west to the mountains of Armenia? These conjectures are at least consistent with the most probable notions of the primitive habitation of man, which I take to be near the sources of the Ganges (as Josephus expressly mentions), the Bourampooter and the Indus, from which, as the temperature grew colder, mankind descended to the plains of India.

"This unparalleled revolution, Moses informs us, was introduced by a continual rain for forty days. By this the surface of the earth must have been loosened to a considerable depth; its effects may even have been in many instances destructive; thus in August 1740 several eminences were swept away, nay the whole mountain of Lidsheare, in the province of Wermland in Sweden, was rent asunder by a heavy fall of rain for only one night. 27 Schwed. Abhand. 93. This loosening and opening of the earth was in many places where the marine inundation stagnated an useful operation to the soil subsequently to be formed, as by these means shells and other marine exuviae were introduced into it, which rendered it more fertile. By this rain also the salt water was diluted, and its pernicious effects both to soil and fresh water fish in great measure prevented. The destruction of animals served the same purposes, and might, in many instances, be necessary to fertilise a soil produced by the decomposition of primary mountains; from the animals thus destroyed the phosphoric acid found in many ores may have originated.

"But the completion of this catastrophe was undoubtedly effected, as Moses also states, by the invasion of the waters of the great abyss,

most probably, as I have said, that immense tract of ocean stretching from the Philippine islands, or rather from the Indian continent on the one side to Terra-Firma on the other, and thence to the southern pole, and again from Buenos Ayres to New Holland, and thence to the pole. Tracing its course on the eastern part of the globe, we shall see it impelled northwards with restless impetuosity against the continent which at that time probably united Asia and America. This appears to have been torn up and swept away (except the islands that still remain) as far north as latitude 40°; its further progress appears to have been somewhat checked by the lofty mountains of China and Tartary, and those on the opposite American coast; here then it began to dilate itself over the collateral countries; the part checked by the Tartarian mountains forming, by sweeping away the soil, the desert of Coby, while the interior or middle torrent pressed forward to the pole, but the interior surge, being still more restricted by the contiguous, numerous, and elevated mountains of eastern Siberia and America, must at last have arisen to a height and pressure which overbore all resistance, dashing to pieces the heads of those mountains, as Patrin and Steller remark, and bearing over them the vegetable and animal spoils of the more southern, ravaged or torn-up continents, to the far-extended and inclined plains of western Siberia, where its free expansion allowed it to deposit them. Hence the origin of the bones and tusks of elephants and rhinoceri found in the plains, or inconsiderable sandy or marly eminences in the north-western parts of Siberia, as Mr. Pallas rightly judges.

"If now, returning to the south, we

we contemplate the effects of this overwhelming invasion on the more southern regions of India and Arabia, we shall, where the coasts were undefended by mountains, discover it excavating the gulphs of Nankin, Tonquin and Siam, the vast bay of Bengal and the Arabic and red seas. That the southern capes, promontories and headlands, were extenuated to their present shape by the deluge, and not by tides or the currents still observed in those seas, may be inferred from the inefficacy of those feeble powers to produce any change in them for many past centuries.

"The chief force of the inundation seems to have been directed northwards in the meridians of from 110 to 200 east of London. In the more western tracts it appears to have been weaker; the plains of India I suspect to have been less ravaged, or perhaps their subsequent fertility may have been occasioned by the many rivers by which that happy country is watered. Not so those of Arabia; their solid basis, resisting the inundation, was obliged to yield its looser surface, and remains even now a sandy desert, while the interior more mountainous tracts, intercepting, and thus collecting, the washed-off soil, are, to this day, celebrated for their fertility. 2 Niebuhr, 45 and 320. Irish edition. To a similar transportation of the ancient vegetable soil, the vast sandy deserts of Africa, and the barrenness of most of the plains of Persia, may be attributed.

"The progress of the Siberian inundation once more claims our attention; that it must have been here for some time stationary may be inferred from its confinement between the Altaïshan elevation

on the south, and the Ouralian mountains on the west, and the circumpolar mountains on the side of Greenland. Hence the excavations observed on the northern parts of the former, and the abrupt declivities on the eastern flanks of the latter, while the western discover none. New reinforcements from the south-east must at length have surmounted all obstacles; but the subsequent surges could not have conveyed such a quantity of shells or marine productions as the first, and hence, though many are found on the more northern plains, scarce any are found on the great Altaïshan elevation.

"The mass of waters now collected and spread over the Arctic regions, must have descended partly southwards over the deserts of Tartary, into countries with which we are too little acquainted to trace its ravages: but from the opposition it must have met in these mountainous tracts, and the repercussion of their craggy sides, eddies must have been formed to which the Caspian, Euxine, and other lakes, may have owed their origin. Part also must have extended itself over the vast tracts west of the Ourals, and there expanded more freely over the plains of Russia and Poland down to latitude 52°, where it must have met with and be opposed by the inundation originating in the western parts of the pacific ocean, this side the Cape of Good Hope, and thence impelled northwards and westwards in the same manner as the eastern inundation already described, but with much less force, and sweeping the continents of South America (if then emerged) and of Africa, conveying to Spain, Italy and France, and perhaps still farther north, elephants and other animals and vegetables hitherto sup-

posed

posed partly of Indian and partly of American origin.

"That the course here assigned is not imaginary appears from the shells, vegetables, and animal remains of those remote climates, still found in Europe, and from the discovery both of the European and the American promiscuously mixed with each other at Fez. 1 Bergman *Erde Kugel*, 232, 249.

"So also in Germany, Flanders, and England, the spoils of the northern climates, and those of the southern also, are equally found; thus the teeth of arctic bears and bones of whales, as well as those of animals of more southern origin, have been discovered in those parts.

"The effect of the encounter of such enormous masses of water, rushing in opposite directions, must have been stupendous: it was such as appears to have shaken and shattered some of the solid vaults that supported the subjacent strata of the globe. To this concussion I ascribe the formation of the bed of the Atlantic from latitude 20° south up to the north pole. The bare inspection of a map is sufficient to show that this vast space was hollowed by the impression of water; the protuberance from Cape Frio to the river of the Amazons, or la Plata in South America, corresponding with the incavation on the African side from the river of Congo to Cape Palmas; and the African protuberance from the Straits of Gibraltar to Cape Palmas, answering to the immense cavity between New York and Cape St. Roque. The depression of such a vast tract of land cannot appear improbable when we consider the shock it must have received, and the enormous load with which it was charged. Nor is such de-

pression and absorption unexampled, since we have had frequent instances of mountains swallowed up, and some very lately in Calabria.

"The wreck of so considerable an integrant part of the globe must of necessity have convulsed the adjacent still subsisting continents previously connected with it, rent their stony strata, burst the still more solid masses of their mountains, and thus in some cases formed, and in others prepared, the insular state to which these fractured tracts were reduced; to this event therefore I think may be ascribed the bold steep and abrupt western coasts of Ireland, Scotland and Norway, and the numerous isles that border them, as well as many of those of the West Indies. The Britannic islands seem to have acquired their insular state at a later period, though it was probably prepared by this event; but the bataltic masses on the Scotch and Irish coasts and those of Feroc appear to me to have been rent into pillars by this concussion.

"During this elemental conflict, and the crash and ruin of the submerged continent, many of its component parts must have been reduced to atoms, and dispersed through the swelling waves that usurped its place. The more liquid bitumens must by the agitation have intimately mixed with them. They must also have absorbed the fixed air contained in the bowels of the sunk continent; and further, by this vast continental depression, whose derelinquished space was occupied by water, the level of the whole diluvial ocean must have been sunk, and the summits of the highest mountains must then have emerged. In this state of things it is natural to suppose that if iron abounded in the submerged continent,

ment, as it does at this day in the northern countries of Sweden, Norway and Lapland adjacent to it, its particles may have been kept in solution by the fixed air, and the argillaceous, siliceous and carbonaceous particles may have been long suspended. These muddy waters mixing with those impregnated with bitumen, the following combinations must have taken place: 1^o. If carbonic matter was also contained in the water, this uniting to the bitumen must have run into masses no longer fusible in water, and formed strata of coal. 2^{do}. The calces of iron by the contact of bitumen were in great measure gradually reduced, and together with the argillaceous and siliceous precipitated on the summits of several of the mountains not yet emerged, and thus formed basaltic masses, that during desiccation split into columns; in other places they covered the carbonaceous masses already deposited, and by absorbing much of their bitumen rendered them less inflammable, and hence the connexion which the sagacious Werner observed between basalts and coal. The fixed or oxygen air, erupting from many of them, formed those cavities, which being filled by the subsequent infiltration of such of their ingredients as were superfluous to their basaltic state, formed chalcedonies, zeoliths, olivins, basaltines, spars, &c. Hence most of the mountains of Sweden that afford iron, afford also bitumen. Hence also the asphalt found with trap, and under basalts, and in balls of chalcedony found in trap.

" This I take to be the last scene of this dreadful catastrophe, and hence no shells are found in these basalts, they having been previously deposited, though some other lighter marine vegetable remains

have sometimes been found in them; some argillaceous or sandstone strata may also have been deposited at this period.

" On this account however of the formation of the basalts which crown the summits of several lofty peaks, I lay no more stress than it can justly bear; I deliver it barely as an hypothesis more plausible than many others.

" It has been objected to the Moësaic account that the countries near Ararat are too cold to bear olive trees. Tournefort, who first made this objection, should recollect, that at this early period the Caspian and Euxine seas were joined, as he himself has well proved. This circumstance surely fitted a country lying in the 38th degree of latitude to produce olives (which now grow in much higher latitudes), at present chilled only by its distance from the sea.

" A more plausible objection arises from the difficulty of collecting and feeding all the various species of animals now known, some of which can exist only in the hottest, and others only in the coldest climates; it does not however appear to me necessary to suppose that any others were collected in the ark but those most necessary for the use of man, and those only of the graminivorous or granivorous classes, the others were most probably of subsequent creation. The universality of the expressions, Gen. chap. vi. ver. 19. 'Of every living thing, 'of all flesh, two of every sort ' shalt thou bring into the ark,' seem to me to imply no more than the same general expressions do in Gen. chap. i. ver. 30. 'And to ' every beast of the earth, and to ' every fowl of the air, have I given every green herb for meat; where it is certain that only graminivorous

nivorous animals are meant. At this early period ravenous animals were not only not necessary, but would have been even destructive to those who had just obtained existence, and probably not in great numbers. They only became necessary when the graminivorous had multiplied to so great a degree that their carcases would have spread infection. Hence they appear to me to have been of posterior creation; and to this also I attribute the existence of those that are peculiar to America and the torrid and frigid zones.

"The atmosphere itself must have been exceedingly altered by the consequences of the flood. Soon after the creation of vegetables, and in proportion as they grew and multiplied, vast quantities of oxygen must have been thrown off by them into the then existing atmosphere without any proportional counter-acting diminution from the respiration or putrifaction of animals, as these were created only in pairs, and multiplied more slowly; hence it must have been much purer than at present; and to this circumstance perhaps the longevity of the ante-

diluvians may in great measure be attributed. After the flood the state of things was perfectly reversed, the surface of the earth was covered with dead and putrifying land animals and fish, which copiously absorbed the oxygenous part of the atmosphere and supplied only mephitic and fixed air; thus the atmosphere was probably brought to its actual state, containing little more than one-fourth of pure air and nearly three-fourths of mephitic. Hence the constitution of men must have been weakened, and the lives of their enfeebled posterity gradually reduced to their present standard. To avoid these exhalations it is probable that the human race continued for a long time to inhabit the more elevated mountainous tracts. Domestic disturbances in Noah's family, briefly mentioned in holy writ, probably induced him to move with such of his descendants as were most attached to him to the regions he inhabited before the flood, in the vicinity of China, and hence the early origin of the Chinese monarchy."

OBSERVATIONS ON the PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY OF
NORTH AFRICA, by JAMES RENNEL, Esq. F. R. S.

[From GEOGRAPHICAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF MR. PARK'S JOURNEY, in
the PROCEEDINGS OF THE AFRICAN ASSOCIATION, 1798.]

"TO our view, North Africa appears to be composed of three distinct parts, or members. The first and smallest is a fertile region along the Mediterranean, lying opposite to Spain, France, and Italy (commonly distinguished by the name of Barbary); and which,

could we suppose the western basin of the Mediterranean to have once been dry land (having a lake or recipient for the surrounding rivers), might be regarded as a part of Europe; as possessing much more of the European than the African character.

"The

"The second part is what may be deemed the body of North Africa, comprised between Cape Verd and the Red Sea, on the east and west; and having the Great Desert (or Sahara) and its members, on the north; the Ethiopic ocean and South Africa, on the opposite side. The prominent feature of this immense region is a vast belt of elevated land of great breadth, often swelling into lofty mountains, and running generally from west to east, about the tenth degree of latitude. Its western extremity seems to be Cape Verd; the mountains of Abyssinia, the eastern. To the north, its ramifications are neither numerous nor extensive, if we except the elevated tract which turns the Nile to the northward beyond Abyssinia. Towards the south, no particulars are known, save that a multitude of rivers, some of them very large, descend from that side and join the Atlantic and Ethiopic seas, from the Rio Grande on the west to Cape Lopez on the east; proving incontestably that by far the greatest proportion of rain water falls on that side during the periodical season of the S. W. winds; which corresponds in all its circumstances with the same monsoon in India *.

"To the north of this belt, with the exception of the Egyptian Nile, the waters conform generally to the direction of the high land; passing at no great distance (comparatively) from its base to the right and

left; as if the surface of the Sahara had a general dip to the southward †. These rivers moreover receive all their supplies from the south; no streams of any bulk being collected in the desert.

"In order to produce this effect, there must necessarily be a vast hollow in the interior of Africa, between the high land of Nubia on the east, and Manding on the west; and of which the mountains and desert form the other two sides. Nor is this state of things unexampled in the other continents. In Asia, the hollow, to whose waters the Caspian and Aral serve as recipients, is no less extensive than the one just mentioned; reckoning from the sources of the Wolga to those of the Oxus (which latter has ever communicated with the Caspian, either throughout the year or during a part of it); the difference is, that in Asia a greater portion of the hollow is filled up with water than in Africa.

"The third part is of course the Great Desert (or Sahara) and its members; consisting of the lesser deserts of Bornou, Bilma, Barca, Sort, &c. This may be considered as an ocean of sand ‡, presenting a surface equal in extent to about one half of Europe, and having its gulfs and bays; as also its islands fertile in groves and pastures, and in many instances containing a great population subject to order and regular government. The great body or western division of this

* A ridge stretches to the south through the middle of South Africa, and forms an impenetrable barrier between the two coasts. M. Correa de Serra informs me, that the Portuguese in Congo and Angola have never been able to penetrate to the coast of the Indian Ocean.

† Mr. Bruce learned (vol. iii. p. 668.) that a high chain of mountains from 6° runs southward through the middle of Africa. He supposes the gold of Sofala to be drawn from these mountains. (P. 669.)

‡ Circumstances have shewn, that it declines to the eastward also."

"† A wild expanse of lifeless sand and sky!" THOMSON.

ocean, comprised between Fezzan and the Atlantic, is no less than fifty caravan journeys across from north to south; or from 750 to 800 German miles; and double that extent in length: without doubt the largest desert in the world. This division contains but a scanty portion of islands (or oases), and those also of small extent; but the eastern division has many, and some of them very large. Fezzan, Gadamis, Taboo, Ghanat, Agadez, Augela, Berdoa, are amongst the principal ones: besides which there are a vast number of small ones. In effect this is the part of Africa alluded to by Strabo*, when he says from Cneius Piso, that Africa may be compared to a leopard's skin. I conceive the reason why the oases are more common here than in the west, is, that the stratum of sand is shallower from its surface to that of the earth which it covers; in other words, that the water contained in that earth is nearer to the surface; as in most of the oases it springs up spontaneously †. Can any part of the cause be assigned to the prevalent easterly winds, which, by driving the finer particles of sand to leeward, may have heaped it up to a higher level in the Sahara than elsewhere?

"The springs no doubt have

produced the oases themselves, by enabling useful vegetables to flourish, and consequently population to be established. That the Desert has a dip towards the east as well as the south, seems to be proved by the course of the Niger also. Moreover the highest points of North Africa, that is to say, the mountains of Mandinga and Atlas, are situated very far to the west.

"The Desert for the most part abounds with salt. But we hear of salt mines only in the part contiguous to Nigritia, from whence salt is drawn for the use of those countries as well as of the Moorish states adjoining; there being no salt in the negro countries south of the Niger ‡. There are salt lakes also in the eastern part of the Desert.

"The great ridge of mountains and its branches are very productive in gold; but more particularly in the quarters opposite to Manding and Bambouk on the west, and Wangara on the east. It may perhaps admit of a doubt, whether the gold is brought down at the present time by the numerous fountains that form the heads of the Niger and Senegal rivers; or whether it has been deposited in the lower parts of their beds at an earlier period of the world; and that the search, instead of being facilitated by the periodical floods,

* Page 130."

† Water is found at the depth of a few feet in Fezzan (*African Assoc. Q.* p. 96. *O.* p. 146.) The same is said by Pliny, concerning this quarter of Africa; lib. v. c. 5. But farther to the N. W. on the edge of the desert, and in the country of Wadraag in particular, (*Shaw*, p. 135.) wells are dug to an amazing depth, and water mixed with fine sand springs up suddenly, and sometimes fatally to the workmen. The Doctor tells us that the people call this abyss of sand and water 'the sea below ground.' Exactly the same state of things exists in the country round London, where the sand has in several cases nearly filled up the wells (*See Phil. Trans. for 1797.*) The famous well lately dug by earl Spencer (at Wimbledon), of more than 550 feet in depth, has several hundred feet of sand in it."

‡ This quality of the African Desert was familiarly known to Herodotus. (*Melpom.* c. 181, et seq.) He knew also that there was salt in abundance in the northern parts. But, as the inhabitants in that quarter can furnish themselves with salt of a better quality from the sea, the mines are not wrought."

is on the contrary only to be pursued with effect when the waters are low.

"Tombuctoo is reckoned the mart of the Mandinga gold, from whence it is distributed over the northern quarters of Africa by the merchants of Tunis, Tripoly, Fezzan, and Morocco: all of whom resort to Tombuctoo. Most of it no doubt afterwards finds its way into Europe. It may be remarked also, that the gold coast of Guinea (so called doubtless from its being the place of traffic for gold dust) is situated nearly opposite to Manding: but whether the gold brought thither has been washed out of the mountains by the northern or southern streams, I know not: it may be both *. Degombah, another country said to be very productive in gold †, must by its situation lie directly opposite to the gold coast: for it lies immediately to the east of Kong (the Gonjah of Mr. Beaufoy and the Conche of d'Anville ‡).

The people of Fezzan trade to Kong.

"The triangular hilly tract above commemorated (p. 71 of the 'Illustrations'), which projects northward from the highest part of the belt, and contains Manding, Bambouk, &c. is also abundant in gold; particularly in the quarter towards Bambouk, where it is found in mines; and that chiefly in the middle level §. (See also p. 71.)

"Wangara appears to have been in its time nearly as rich as Manding in this metal. The Arabs name it *belaa al tahr*, or the 'country of gold ||.' Edrifi, Ibn Al Wardi, and Leo, bear testimony to its riches. They say that the gold is found in the sands after the periodical inundation of the Niger (which is general over the country) is abated ¶. Leo alone ** says, that the gold is found in the southern quarter of the kingdom; which appears very probable, as the mountains lie on that side: so that it may be con-

"* Some writers have said, that there are gold mines in the neighbourhood of Mina, on the gold coast; others, that the gold is rolled down by the rivers to that neighbourhood. Both may be true. But, on the other hand, it is said that the gold of Wangara is also brought for sale to the southern coast.

"It is difficult to conceive any other adequate cause, than the exchange of the gold of the inland countries, for the introduction of so vast a quantity of kowry shells, which are carried from Europe to the coast of Guinea, and pass for small money in the countries along the Niger from Bambara to Kassinna, both inclusive.

"I am informed from authority, that about 100 tons of kowries are annually shipped from England alone to Guinea. These are originally imported from the Maldivé islands into Bengal; and from Bengal into England. In Bengal 200 more or less are equal to a shilling: and yet, notwithstanding the incredible smallness of the denomination, some article in the market may be purchased for a single kowry. But in the inland parts of Africa: they are about ten times as dear, varying from 220 to 280. Mr. Beaufoy was told, that in Kassinna they were at the rate of about 250. And Mr. Park reports, that they are about the same price at Sego: but cheaper at Tombuctoo, which is about the centre of the kowry country: dearer towards Manding, which is the western extremity of it. Hence they are probably carried in the first instance to Tombuctoo, the gold market; and thence distributed to the east and west. Their circulation seems to be confined between Bornou and Manding. In Bornou they have a coinage of base metal."

"† African Assoc. Q. p. 176. O. p. 264."

"‡ Mr. Park says, that Kong signifies mountain in the Mandinga language; which language is in use from the frontier of Bambara to the western sea.

"§ Labat, vol. iv. ch. 2.

"|| Bakui, and Herbelot; article Vankara."

"¶ See Edrifi in particular, pages 11 and 12."

"** Page 254.

cluded, that the gold sand has not been brought there by the Niger, but by smaller rivers that descend immediately from these mountains. That a part of Wangara is bounded by mountains, we learn from Edrifi: for the lake on which Reghebil stands has mountains hanging over its southern shore *.

"It is supposed that most of the countries bordering on these mountains share in the riches contained within them, by means of the rivulets †. But considering how amazingly productive in gold the streams of this region are, it is wonderful that Pliny should not mention the Niger, as one of the rivers that rolls down golden sands: for although he speaks of the Tagus and others in different quarters, no African river is mentioned ‡. And yet Herodotus knew that the Carthaginians bartered their goods for gold, with the Africans on the sea-coast beyond the pillars of Hercules: which was contrived without the parties seeing each other ||.

"The common boundary of the Moors and Negroes in Africa forms a striking feature, as well in the moral as the political and physical geography of this continent. The Moors descendants of Arabs, intermixed with the various colonists of Africa from the earliest to the latest times, overspread the habitable parts of the Desert, and the oases within it; and have pushed their conquests and establishments southward;

pressing on the Negro aborigines, who have in several instances retired to the southward of the great rivers; but in others preserve their footing on the side towards the Desert; according to the strength or openness of the situation. It is probable, however, that the Negroes, who are an agricultural people, never possessed any considerable portion of the Desert, which is so much better suited to the pastoral life of the Moors. It appears as if matters had not undergone much change in this respect since the days of Herodotus; who fixes the boundary of the Libyans and Ethiopians, in other words, of the Moors and Negroes, near the borders of the Niger; and he apparently pointed to the quarter in which Kassina or Ghana are now situated §.

"The Negroes in the western quarter of the continent are of two distinct races, of which the least numerous are named Foulahs or Foolahs. These, although they partake much of the Negro form and complexion, have neither their jetty colour, thick lips, nor crisped hair. They have also a language distinct from the Mandinga, which is the prevailing one in this quarter.

"The original country of the Foulahs is said to be a tract of no great extent along the eastern branch of the Senegal river; situated between Manding and Kasson; Bam-bouk and Kaarta: and which bears the name of Foola-doo, or the

"* Edrifi, page 12."

"† Mr. Bruce, vol. iii. p. 647, says the same of the mountains of Dyre and Tegla, which are a continuation of the great belt, towards Abyssinia."

"‡ Pliny, lib. xxxiii. c. 4."

"|| Melpomene, c. 196. Dr. Shaw (p. 302) speaks of the same mode of traffic at present between the Moors and Negroes; whence the place of traffic ought to be very far removed from the Mediterranean. There is a similar story related by Cadamosta of the exchange of salt for gold in Melli; and by Dr. Wadstrom on the windward coast of Guinea."

"§ See Enterpe, c. 32; and Melpomene, c. 197.

country of the Foulahs. But whether this be really the case, or whether they might not have come from the country within Sierra Leone (called also the Foulah country), may be a question; of which, more in the sequel. The Foulahs occupy at least as sovereigns several provinces or kingdoms, interspersed throughout the tract comprehended between the mountainous border of the country of Sierra Leone on the west, and that of Tombuctoo on the east; as also a large tract on the lower part of the Senegal river; and these provinces are insulated from each other in a very remarkable manner. Their religion is Mahomedanism, but with a great mixture of paganism; and with less intolerance than is practised by the Moors.

"The principal of the Foulah states is that within Sierra Leone; and of which Teemboo is the capital. The next in order appears to be that bordering on the south of the Senegal river, and on the Jaloffs: this is properly named Siratik. Others of less note are Bondou, with Fouta-Torra adjacent to it, lying between the rivers Gambia and Falemé; Foola-doo and Brooko along the upper part of the Senegal river; Wassila beyond the upper part of the Niger; and Massina lower down on the same river, and joining to Tombuctoo on the west.

"The Moors have not in any instance established themselves on the south of the great rivers. They have advanced farthest to the south in the western quarter of Africa; so that the common boundary of

the two races passes, in respect of the parallels on the globe, with a considerable degree of obliquity to the north, in its way from the river Senegal towards Nubia and the Nile. Mr. Park arranges the Moorish states, which form the frontier towards Nigritia, together with the Negro states opposed to them on the south, in the line of his progress, in the following order:

"The small Moorish state of Gedumah, situated on the north bank of the Senegal river, and the last that touches on it*, is opposed to the small Negro kingdom of Kajaaga, on the south. This latter occupies the extremity of the navigable course of the Senegal, terminated in this place by the cataract of F'low.

"From this point the Negro and Foulah states occupy both banks of the Senegal river to its source; and beyond that both banks of the Niger (or Joliba) likewise, to the lake Dibble, situated beyond the term of Mr. Park's expedition. This space is divided unequally between Kaffon, a hilly strong country, but of small extent; and which has the Moors of Jassnoo on the north; Kaarta, a considerable state, which has Ludamar for its opposite (a country held by Ali, a Moorish prince, who is loaded with infamy on the score of maltreatment of the only two Europeans who appear to have entered his country in latter times); Bambara, of still more consideration, having the Moorish kingdom of Beeroo to the north; and Massina, a Foulah state, bordering also on the south of Beeroo.

* "The Moors appear to be masters of the northern bank of the Senegal, through the greater part of its navigable course; the Foulahs of the southern bank."

"Here Mr. Park's personal knowledge ends; but he learnt that Tombuctoo and Houssa, which succeed in order to Massina, and occupy both sides of the Niger, are Moorish states, though with greatest proportion of Negro subjects; so that the river may be considered as the boundary of the two races in this quarter*.

"Of the countries between Houssa and Kaffina we are ignorant. The Desert seems to approach very near the river (Niger) in that quarter, whence a Moorish population may be inferred. South of the river we hear of Kaffaba, Gago, and other Negro countries; but without any distinct notices of position; and beyond these Melli.

"Kassina and Bornou, two great empires on the north of the river, appear to divide the largest portion of the remaining space to the borders of Nubia; and extend a great way to the north; this region being composed of desert and habitable country intermixed; but perhaps containing the largest proportion of the latter. In both these empires, the sovereigns are Mahomedans, but the bulk of their subjects are said to adhere to their ancient worship; that is to say, the lower orders are almost universally Negroes†.

"From what has appeared, perhaps the boundary of Nigritia, as it respects the Negro population,

may be expressed generally, and with a few exceptions, as follows: beginning from the west, the extent upwards of the navigable course of the Senegal river generally,—thence a line drawn to Silla; from Silla to Tombuctoo, Houssa, and Berina, along the river Niger; and thence through Afouda, Kanem, and Kuku, to Dongola on the Nile.

"Leo‡ enumerates twelve states or kingdoms of Nigritia: but amongst these he includes Gualata, a tract only 300 miles south of the river Nun: as also Cano (G nat), adjacent to Fezzan; and Nubia, Kassina, Bornou, and Tombuctoo, are included of course§.

"The kingdom of the Foulahs, before-mentioned, situated between the upper part of the Gambia river and the coast of Sierra Leone, and along the Rio Grande, has also a Mahomedan sovereign, but the bulk of the people appear to be of the ancient religion. It has been already said, that although they are a black people, they are less black than the Negroes generally, and have neither crisped hair nor thick lips; as also that they have a language distinct from the Mandinga. From these circumstances, added to that of situation, they appear clearly to be the Leucæthiopes of Ptolemy and Pliny. The former places them in the situation occupied by the Foulahs; that is, in the parallel of nine degrees north; having to the

* The emperor of Morocco is said to have held at one period the sovereignty of some of the countries on the northern banks of the Senegal and Niger rivers. Labat, vol. iii. p. 339, speaks of incursions made by his troops."

† African Assoc. Q. p. 125. O. p. 191."

‡ Page 4."

§ The Arabs and Moors call Nigritia by the general name of Soudan. By Belad Soudan, or the country of Soudan, Abulveda includes all the known part of Africa, south of the Great Desert and Egypt. With him Scuden is the southern quarter of the globe. D'Hierbois also allows it a wide range. Afnoo is another term for Nigritia, in use among the natives themselves. (See also Proceedings Afric. Assoc. Q. p. 151. O. p. 246.)"

north the mountains of Ryffadius, which separate the courses of the Stachir and Nia rivers (Gambia and Rio Grande), and which therefore answer to the continuation of the great belt of high land in our geography; in which there is moreover another point of agreement, the Caphas of Ptolemy being the Caffaba of the map*.

"Ptolemy by the name evidently meant to describe a people less black than the generality of the Ethiopians; and hence it may be gathered that this nation had been traded with, and that some notices respecting it had been communicated to him. It may also be remarked, that the navigation of Hanno terminated on this coast; probably at Sherbro' river, or found. And as this was also the term of the knowledge of Ptolemy, it may be justly suspected that this part of the coast was described from Carthaginian materials†.

"Those who have perused the journal of Messrs. Watt and Winterbottom, through the Foulah country in 1794, and recollect how flattering a picture they give of the urbanity and hospitality of the

Foulahs, will be gratified on finding that this nation was known and distinguished from the rest of the Ethiopians at a remote period of antiquity‡.

"The contrast between the Moorish and Negro characters is as great as that between the nature of their respective countries; or between their form and complexion. The Moors appear to possess the vices of the Arabs without their virtues; and to avail themselves of an intolerant religion, to oppress strangers: whilst the Negroes, and especially the Mandingas, unable to comprehend a doctrine that substitutes opinion or belief for the social duties, are content to remain in their humble state of ignorance. The hospitality shewn by these good people to Mr. Park, a destitute and forlorn stranger, raises them very high in the scale of humanity: and I know of no fitter title to confer on them than that of the Hindoos of Africa: at the same time by no means intending to degrade the Mahomedans of India by a comparison with the African Moors."

* * The Soluentii of Ptolemy may also be meant for the Solimani of Mr. Park."

† And it may also have been the scene of traffic mentioned in page 155; as Dr. Wadstrom speaks of such a custom in this quarter at the present day."

‡ Pliny (lib. v. c. 8.) also speaks of the Leuæthiopes, but seems to place them on this side of Nigritia. May it not be that certain tribes of Foulahs were then established, as at present, along the Senegal river?

A Short MINERALOGICAL DESCRIPTION of the MOUNTAIN of GIBRALTAR, by MAJOR IMRIE.

[From the fourth Volume of the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL SOCIETY of EDINBURGH.]

THE mountain of Gibraltar is situated in $36^{\circ} 9'$ north latitude, and in $5^{\circ} 17'$ east longitude from Greenwich. It is the promontory which, with that of Ceuta upon the opposite coast of Barbary, forms the entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar from the Mediterranean; and Europa Point, which is the part of the mountain that advances most towards Africa, is generally regarded as the most southern promontory in Europe. The form of this mountain is oblong; its summit a sharp craggy ridge; its direction is nearly from north to south; and its greatest length, in that direction, falls very little short of three miles. Its breadth varies with the indentations of the shore, but it no where exceeds three quarters of a mile. The line of its ridge is undulated, and the two extremes are somewhat higher than its centre.

The summit of the Sugar Loaf, which is the point of its greatest elevation towards the south, is 1439 feet; the Rock Mortar, which is the highest point to the north, is 1350; and the Signal House, which is nearly the central point between these two, is 1276 feet above the level of the sea. The western side of the mountain is a series of rugged slopes, interspersed with abrupt precipices. Its northern extremity is perfectly perpendicular, except

towards the north-west, where what are called the Lines intervene, and a narrow passage of flat ground that leads to the isthmus, and is entirely covered with fortification. The eastern side of the mountain mostly consists of a range of precipices; but a bank of sand, rising from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, covers a third of its perpendicular height. Its southern extremity falls, in a rapid slope, from the summit of the Sugar Loaf, into a rocky flat, of considerable extent, called Windmill Hill. This flat forms half an oval, and is bounded by a range of precipices, at the southern base of which a second rocky flat takes place, similar in form and extent to Windmill Hill; and also, like it, surrounded by a precipice, the southern extremity of which is washed by the sea, and forms Europa Point. Upon the western side, this peninsular mountain is bounded by the bay of Gibraltar, which is in length nearly eight miles and a half, and in breadth upwards of five miles. In this bay the tide frequently rises four feet. Upon the north the mountain is attached to Spain by a low sandy isthmus, the greatest elevation of which, above the level of the sea, does not exceed 10 feet, and its breadth, at the base of the rock, is not more than three quarters of a mile. This isthmus se-

parates the Mediterranean, on the east, from the bay of Gibraltar on the west.

" This mountain is much more curious in its botanical, than in its mineralogical productions. In respect to the first, it connects, in some degree, the flora of Africa with that of Europe. In respect to the latter, it produces little variety; perhaps a few substances and phænomena that are rare, but none that are peculiar.

" The principal mass of the mountain rock consists of a grey, dense (what is generally called primary) marble; the different beds of which are to be examined in a face of 1350 feet of perpendicular height, which it presents to Spain in a conical form. These beds, or strata, are of various thickness, from 20 to upwards of 40 feet, dipping in a direction from east to west, nearly at an angle of 35 degrees. In some parts of the solid mass of this rock, I have found testaceous bodies entirely transmuted into the constituent matter of the rock, and their interior hollows filled up with calcareous spar; but these do not occur often in its composition, and its beds are not separated by any intermediate strata.

" In all parts of the globe, where this species of rock constitutes large districts, it is found to be cavernous. The caves of Gibraltar are many, and some of them of great extent. That which most deserves attention and examination is called St. Michael's Cave, which is situated upon the southern part of the mountain, almost equally distant from the Signal Tower and the Sugar Loaf. Its entrance is 1000 feet above the level of the sea: this entrance is formed by a rapid slope of earth, which has fallen into it at

various periods, and which leads to a spacious hall, incrusted with spar, and apparently supported in the centre by a large massy stalactitical pillar. To this succeeds a long series of caves of difficult access. The passages from the one to the other of these are over precipices, which can only be passed by the assistance of ropes and scaling ladders. I have, myself, passed over many of these to the depth of 300 feet from the upper cave; but at that depth the smoke of our torches became so disagreeable, that we were obliged to give up our pursuit, and leave caves still under us unexamined. In these cavernous recesses, the formation and process of stalactites is to be traced, from the flimsy quilt-like cone, suspended from the roof, to the robust trunk of a pillar, three feet in diameter, which rises from the floor, and seems intended by nature to support the roof from which it originated.

" The variety of form, which this matter takes in its different situations and directions, renders this subterraneous scenery strikingly grotesque, and in some places beautifully picturesque. The stalactites of these caves, when near the surface of the mountain, are of a brownish yellow colour; but, as we descended towards the lower caves, we found them begin to lose their darkness of colour, which by degrees shaded off to a whitish yellow.

" The only inhabitants of these caves are bats, some of which are of a large size. The soil, in general, upon the mountain of Gibraltar, is but thinly sown; and in many parts that thin covering has been washed off by the heavy autumnal rains, which have left the super-

superficies of the rock, for a considerable extent, bare and open to inspection. In those situations, an observing eye may trace the effects of the slow, but constant, decomposition of the rock, caused by its exposure to the air, and the corrosion of sea-salts, which, in the heavy gales of easterly winds, are deposited with the spray on every part of the mountain. Those uncovered parts of the mountain rock also expose to the eye a phenomenon worthy of some attention, as it tends clearly to demonstrate, that, however high the surface of this rock may now be elevated above the level of the sea, it has once been the bed of agitated waters. This phenomenon is to be observed in many parts of the rock, and is constantly found in the beds of torrents. It consists of pot-like holes, of various sizes, hollowed out of the solid rock, and formed apparently by the attrition of gravel or pebbles, set in motion by the rapidity of rivers, or currents in the sea. One of those, which had been recently laid open, I examined with attention. I found it to be five feet deep, and three feet in diameter; the edge of its mouth rounded off as if by art, and its sides and bottom retaining a considerable degree of polish. From its mouth, for three and a half feet down, it was filled with a red argillaceous earth, thinly mixed with minute parts of transparent quartz crystals; the remaining foot and a half, to the bottom, contained an aggregate of water-worn stones, which were from the size of a goose's egg to that of a small walnut, and consisted of red jaspers, yellowish white flints, white quartz, and bluish white agates, firmly combined by a yellowish

brown stalactitical calcareous spar. In this breccia I could not discover any fragment of the mountain rock, or any other calcareous matter, except the cement with which it was combined. This pot is 940 feet above the level of the sea.

“Upon the west side of the mountain, towards its base, some strata occur, which are heterogenous to the mountain rock: the first, or highest, forms the segment of a circle; its convex side is towards the mountain, and it slopes also in that direction. This stratum consists of a number of thin beds; the outward one, being the thinnest, is in a state of decomposition, and is mouldering down into a blackish brown or ferruginous coloured earth. The beds, inferior to this, progressively increase in breadth to 17 inches, where the stratification rests upon a rock of an argillaceous nature.

“This last bed, which is 17 inches thick, consists of quartz of a blackish blue colour, in the septa or cracks of which are found fine quartz crystals, colourless, and perfectly transparent. These crystals are composed of eighteen planes, disposed in hexangular columns, terminated at both extremities by hexangular pyramids. The largest of those that I have seen does not exceed two-eighths of an inch in length: they, in general, adhere to the rock by the sides of the column, but are detached without difficulty. Their great degree of transparency has obtained them the name of Gibraltar diamonds.

“At no great distance from where these crystals are found, upon the same slope of the mountain, but rather nearer to the level of the sea, a stratum of argillaceous matter has been laid open, divided into

many thin beds, the broadest of which does not exceed a foot in thickness. Its general colour is of a whitish grey, with a small mixture of yellow, and it is divided transversely by straight septa or cracks, both sides of which are covered with dendritical figures, of a yellowish brown colour, beautifully representing the objects of landscape. At the western base of the mountain, on a level with the sea by which it is washed, a very extensive stratum occurs, of the same nature as the last described, bearing from north to south, parallel with, and dipping towards, the mountain nearly at an angle of 40 degrees.

"In some parts of the western slope of the mountain, towards the south, are found nests of a dark red shivery clay, in which are imbedded flints of a dirty sap-green colour: of those no regular stratum is to be perceived; many of them are unshapely masses; but they, in general, tend to the rhomboidal form, and are from three to four inches long, by two or three broad, and an inch and a half thick. They are not incrustated as the flints found in chalk, nor have they the appearance of having been worn by attrition.

"Upon different parts of the mountain, towards its base, are found large quantities of sand, composed of different materials, and assuming various appearances as to colour. The largest bank of this arenaceous matter is upon the western side of the mountain, and consists of small particles of crystallised quartz, colourless, and perfectly transparent *per se*, but of an ochreous colour in the mass, on account of a red argillaceous earth which adheres to them. The sand of this

bank is perfectly loose and uncombined: one half of it has been levelled into an extensive parade, its surface having been combined by the lime and rubbish from the ruins of the town. The southern extremity of the bank is still to be seen in its natural state, and forms the burying-ground of the garrison.

"Upon the east side of the mountain is found another of these banks, of considerable extent, and, as I mentioned before, rising from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, and reaching to one-third of its entire elevation. This bank is composed of small particles of crystallised quartz, of testaceous bodies rounded by attrition, and of a few minute particles of the calcareous rock; the whole has a whitish grey colour. The rain-water, which falls from the bare mountain rock above the sand, brings along with it calcareous matter, which is deposited upon the bank, and combines its surface into a crust, which in some places is so much indurated as to bear the pressure of the foot.

"In other parts of the mountain, where this sand is surrounded by the calcareous rock, and covered in and protected from the action of the air, and corrosion of the sea-salts, it is found in a perfect indurated state, combined by stalactitical spar, and forming a minute breccia. A quarry of this arenaceous stone has been opened upon the south-east quarter of the mountain, and is made use of, with great propriety, to line the embrasures of some of the new works belonging to the garrison. Its inaptitude to fly off in splinters, when struck by a ball, gives, in such situations, additional safety to the defenders of the place.

"The

"The western side of the mountain's base, around Rosia Bay, and the new Mole, is a rock composed of an aggregate of small fragments of every fossil that has been here described, with the addition of two different species of marble that are probably adventitious, as their native beds have not been found in the mountain. The one of those is black, and the other of an olive green colour. The whole of this mixture produces a most beautiful breccia, and is firmly combined by a calcareous cement of a yellow, verging towards an orange colour. It is susceptible of a high polish, except where fragments of the argillaceous strata occur; these can be easily smoothed down, but cannot be brought to a perfect polish. The fragments in this breccia are angular, and none of them have the appearance of being water-worn.

"It only now remains for me to mention what are generally called the fossil bones, found in the rock of Gibraltar. These have been much talked of, and by some looked upon as a phenomenon beyond the power of explanation. The general idea, which exists concerning them, is, that they are found in a petrified state, and inclosed in the solid calcareous rock; but these are mistakes, which could only arise from inaccurate observation and false description.

"In the perpendicular fissures of the rock, and in some of the caverns of the mountain (all of which afford evident proofs of their former communication with the surface), a calcareous concretion is found, of a reddish brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerable induration, inclosing the bones of various ani-

mals, some of which have the appearance of being human. These bones are of various sizes, and lie in all directions, intermixed with shells of snails, fragments of the calcareous rock, and particles of spar; all of which materials are still to be seen in their natural uncombined states, partially scattered over the surface of the mountain. These having been swept, by heavy rains at different periods, from the surface into the situations above described, and having remained for a long series of years in those places of rest, exposed to the permeating action of water, have become enveloped in, and cemented by, the calcareous-matter which it deposits.

"The bones, in this composition, have not the smallest appearance of being petrified; and if they have undergone any change, it is more like that of calcination than that of petrification, as the most solid parts of them generally admit of being cut and scraped down with the same ease as chalk.

"Bones combined in such concretions are not peculiar to Gibraltar: they are found in such large quantities in the country of Dalmatia, and upon its coasts in the islands of Cherfo, and Osero, that some naturalists have been induced to go so far as to assert, that there has been a regular stratum of such matter in that country, and that its present broken and interrupted appearance has been caused by earthquakes, or other convulsions, experienced in that part of the globe. But, of late years, a traveller (Abbé Alberto Fortis), has given a minute description of the concretion in which the bones are found in that country: and by his

his account it appears, that with regard to situation, composition and colour, it is perfectly similar to that found at Gibraltar. By his description it also appears, that the two mountain rocks of Gibraltar and Dalmatia consist of the same species of calcareous stone; from which it is to be presumed, that the concretions in both have been formed in the same manner and about the same periods.

“ Perhaps if the fissures and caves of the rock of Dalmatia were still more minutely examined, their former communications with the surface might yet be traced, as in those described above; and, in that case, there would be at least a strong probability, that the materials of the concretions of that country have been brought together by the same accidental cause, which, in my opinion, has collected those found in the caverns of Gibraltar. I have traced, in Gibraltar, this concretion, from the lowest part of a deep perpendicular fissure, up to the surface of the mountain. As it approached to the surface, the concretion became less firmly combined, and, when it had no covering of the calcareous rock, a small degree of adhesion only remained, which was evidently produced by the argillaceous earth, in its composition, having been moistened by rain and baked by the sun.

“ The depth, at which these materials had been penetrated by that proportion of stalaclitical matter, capable of giving to the concretion its greatest adhesion and solidity, I found to vary according to its situation and to the quantity of matter to be combined. In fissures, narrow and contracted, I found the concretion possessing a great degree

of hardness at six feet from the surface; but in other situations more extended, and where a larger quantity of the materials had been accumulated, I found it had not gained its greatest degree of adhesion at double that depth. In one of the caves, where the mass of concretion is of considerable size, I perceived it to be divided into different beds, each bed being covered with a crust of the stalaclitical spar, from one inch to an inch and a half in thickness, which seems to indicate, that the materials have been carried in at various periods, and that those periods have been very remote from each other.

“ At Rosia Bay, upon the west side of Gibraltar, this concretion is found in what has evidently been a cavern, originally formed by huge unshapely masses of the rock, which have tumbled in together. The fissure, or cavern, formed by the disruption and subsidence of those masses, has been entirely filled up with the concretion, and is now exposed to full view by the outward mass having dropped down, in consequence of the encroachments of the sea. It is to this spot that strangers are generally led to examine the phenomenon; and the composition having here attained to its greatest degree of hardness and solidity, the hasty observer, seeing the bones inclosed in what has so little the appearance of having been a vacuity, examines no further, but immediately adopts the idea of their being incased in the solid rock. The communication from this former chasm, to the surface from which it has received the materials of the concretion, is still to be traced in the face of the rock, but its opening is at present covered by the base of the line wall

wall of the garrison. Here bones are found that are apparently human; and those of them that appear to be of the legs, arms, and vertebrae of the back, are scattered among others of various kinds and sizes, even down to the smallest bones of small birds. I found here the complete jaw-bone of a sheep; it contained its full complement of teeth, the enamel of which was perfect, and its whiteness and lustre in no degree impaired. In the hollow parts of some of the large bones was contained a minute crystallisation of pure and colourless calcareous spar; but, in most, the interior part consisted of a sparry crust of a reddish colour, scarcely in any degree transparent.

“At the northern extremity of the mountain, the concretion is generally found in perpendicular fissures. The miners there, employed upon the fortifications, in excavating one of those fissures, found, at a great depth from the surface, two skulls, which were supposed to be human; but, to me, one of them, if not both, appeared to be too small for the human species. The bone of each was perfectly firm and solid; from which it is to be presumed, that they were in a state of maturity before they were inclosed in the concretion. Had they appertained to very young children, perhaps the bone would have been more porous, and of a less firm texture. The probability is, that they belonged to a species of monkey, which still continues to inhabit, in considerable numbers, those parts of the rock which are to us inaccessible.

“This concretion varies, in its composition, according to the situation in which it is found. At the

extremity of Prince's Lines, high in the rock which looks towards Spain, it is found to consist only of a reddish calcareous earth, and the bones of small birds cemented thereby. The rock around this spot is inhabited by a number of hawks, that, in the breeding season, nestle here, and rear their young; the bones in this concretion are probably the remains of the food of those birds. At the base of the rock, below King's Lines, the concretion consists of pebbles of the prevailing calcareous rock. In this concretion, at a very considerable depth under the surface, was found the under part of a glass bottle, uncommonly shaped, and of great thickness; the colour of the glass was of a dark green.

“In many parts of the rock I have found concretions, in which there are no bones of any kind; and on the elevated parts of the mountain, where the slopes are rapid, I have found a breccia (if I may so call it), entirely consisting of snail-shells, combined in a mass of opaque stalactitical spar of a yellowish brown colour. The various progressive augmentations of this matter were to be traced in various shades of the same colour, which, like the zones of the antique alabaster, curve round, and follow the form of the shell. The purer matter of this spar has penetrated the shells, and in their interior hollows has formed a lining of small crystals, generally colourless and perfectly transparent.

“I have bestowed more time in endeavouring to describe the composition, and the real situation, of this concretion of bones, than the subject, in the estimation of many, will

will seem to deserve, and indeed more than it deserves in my own opinion; but where an erroneous opinion has obtained a footing, in consequence of inaccurate observations and partial description, it is the duty of every new observer to endeavour to correct it.

ANTIQUITIES.

ESSAY on the TOPOGRAPHY of the ILIAD *, by Professor HEYNE, of
Gottingen, Aulic Counsellor to His BRITANNIC MAJESTY, &c.

[From the fourth Volume of the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL SOCIETY
of EDINBURGH.]

“FOR nine years had the war between the Greeks and Trojans been carried on. The former now lay encamped in the neighbourhood of Troy, when the quarrel between Achilles and Agamemnon occasioned a division in the army.

“Agamemnon, to convince Achilles that, even without his assistance, victory might be obtained, causes the army to march out of the camp, and advance towards the city. Hitherto the Trojans had kept close within their walls, following the advice of their old men †, who saw plainly, that, if a siege should actually take place, the Greeks could make little impression on the town: for the first rudiments of the arts of attack were then hardly known. Encouraged, however, it should seem, by intelligence of the division in the Grecian army, the Trojans quitted the city, and met the Greeks in the field;—a new gratification to the proud spirit

* The present essay follows out the train of ideas, suggested in a paper read before the Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen, *De aris Homericis, et obsigatione a Trojanis factis*, in the year 1789, published in the sixth volume of their Transactions. All the disquisitions, there introduced, respecting the origin of military tactics, the manner of drawing up an army, and giving battle, and the art of fortifying and attacking a post, as described in the Iliad, are here omitted; many topics, on the other hand, are now corrected and enlarged. That essay was my first on the topography of the Iliad; a subject involved in so much difficulty. I allowed myself then to be misled by respect for Pope and Wood, so far as to renounce my own ideas, and to mould, according to the representations of these gentlemen, the views I had drawn from Homer himself. I soon found, however, that I had trusted to bad guides, and at once resolved, laying aside all secondary aids, to attempt, from the descriptions given in the poem itself, a sketch of the topography of the Iliad, such as Homer exhibits it. This essay I now present to the public. I had for a long time thrown it aside, when its coincidence with the information collected by M. Chevalier on the subject, induced me to revise it, and now inclines me to submit it, for further investigation, to the friends of the poet. Amendment after this will be an easy task.”

“† Iliad, XV. 721, &c. The sage Polydamas, afterwards, likewise, when the design of an attack upon the camp seemed likely to misfire, gave his advice rather to retire again within the city, and take refuge, as formerly, behind the walls. But the rash Hector would not consent (XVIII. 266. &c.). Unquestionably the long siege must have proved extremely harassing. The provisions, as well as the treasure, of Priam were exhausted, as Hector himself urges. (Ibid. 288.) H.

of Achilles, that now, for the first time, when it was known he was not with the army, the Trojans should venture out into the plain.*.

"The two armies met. Four principal battles are described in the Iliad. The first (the subject of our present investigation), on the plain between the camp and the city (Il. IV. 422. VI. 306.);—the second, when the Greeks were driven back to their camp (Iliad, VIII. 55—213);—the third, which extends not only to the flight of the Grecians into their camp, but likewise to the storming of the camp itself by the Trojans, who break in and set fire to a ship, till at length they are repulsed, and pursued almost to the city by Patroclus. Here Patroclus falls; and the Greeks put to flight are once more driven back to their camp. (Iliad, XI—XVIII.) In the fourth battle, Achilles beats back the Trojans again to the city, and crowns his victory by the fall of Hector.

"No lively idea can be formed, either of these battles, or of the storming of the camp, without some general conception of the environs of Troy.

"From Mount Ida, run two hilly ridges from the east down to the sea, where two promontories bound a jutting beach. The promontory on the north is Rhœteum; that on the south Sigeum. Within these two ridges lies a plain, sloping down to the shore, and inclosed within their semicircular

compass. (Strabo, XVIII. p. 892. B.) In this plain run two rivers; on the north side the Simoïs; on the south the Scamander, called also the Xanthus. The latter now discharges itself into the sea to the south, below Sigeum, but formerly, before approaching the shore, it must have united with the Simoïs, so that both rivers had a common outlet into the sea, above or to the north of Sigeum. This *embouchure* was surrounded with many marshes, and hence was called *Stomalimnè*; a name which occurs but once in Homer, in an interpolated passage. (Iliad, VI. 4.) The exact situation is laid down by Strabo (XIII. p. 890. A. Pliny, V. 20. 33. †).

"The Grecian fleet was drawn on shore at a place between the two promontories. The distance betwixt the two, according to Strabo (p. 890. B. 891. A.), was 60 stadia (about two German or nine English miles), in a direct course by sea. The curvature of the land, however, would increase the distance in keeping along the shore ‡.

"It is generally supposed, that the Grecian camp extended from cape to cape. This notion involves very considerable difficulty. Had it done so, the camp must have reached beyond the Simoïs, and the marshes on both sides of it; a circumstance by no means probable, particularly as the stream is so apt to overflow; and not the smallest trace occurs in Homer, either of the river running through the camp,

* Once only Hector had ventured beyond the Scæan gate, as far as the beech tree; but on that occasion he with difficulty escaped from Achilles."

† Of all these places, the charts of Pope and Wood give very different views; that of M. Chevalier, however, accords exactly with what is said by Strabo and Pliny."

‡ D'Anville, in his description of the Hellespont, (*Mémoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions*, tom. XXIV. p. 329.) allows only half the distance; M. Chevalier does the same (ch. VIII.), on the authority of the passage in Pliny (v. 35.), where the distance is reckoned from *Ænæteum*. Still, however, it is a contested point, what part of the coast must properly be regarded as Rhœteum. (Il. IX. 352. &c.) H.

or of the left wing being stationed beyond the river. When Homer, therefore, says, that the ships occupied the whole shore * between the two promontories, he probably speaks in a poetical style, to convey a magnificent idea; and it is more likely that the camp only stretched on both sides towards the promontories Rhœteum and Sigeum, and that on the north-east it extended to the Simoïs.

"Within this space were the ships of the Greeks hauled up on the land, at a considerable distance from the shore, with their sterns towards the land, and arranged in several rows †. The rows, however, must have been drawn backwards according to the oblique direction of the whole camp from the north towards Sigeum. Behind the foremost row of the ships the troops were encamped, so that the ships themselves must have served for a kind of rampart, as is plain from a comparison of different passages ‡. In the rear of the left wing must have been the marshes called *Stomalimné*. Strabo assigns particular names to several parts of

the coast, though he has not put them down in geographical order §. As only one part of the coast bears the name of *Station of the fleet*, it may perhaps be inferred from this, that the Grecian camp occupied only a part of the beach.

"The ships stood in the order in which they had been drawn ashore. The vessels of Proteusilaüs, accordingly, occupied the foremost place; and next to them were the ships of Ajax, the son of Telamon. (Iliad, XIII. 681. XV. 706, &c.) Ajax was stationed towards Rhœteum, consequently on the left wing of the camp; Achilles, with his Myrmidons, on the right towards Sigeum §. In regard to the two extremities there is no doubt; but the arrangement in the intermediate space cannot be so exactly ascertained; unless, perhaps, thus far: Near to Ajax, and farther to the right, lay Idomeneus, with the Cretans (Iliad, X. 112.); beside him Nestor, with his Pylians; then followed Menestheus, with the Athenians; next to him was Ulysses; near to whom were stationed the Argives, Myceneans, and Lacedæ-

* * ILIAD, XIV. 55. — καὶ πᾶσαν ἀπέσκη

Ἥλιος στόμα μακρὸν, ὅσον συνέσκηπον ἄλγες.

"He does not expressly name either Sigeum or Rhœteum; on the contrary, he always places the camp on the Hellespont, in the more extensive signification of that term, as meaning the northern part of the Ægean Sea."

"† The ships are therefore said to have stood *πρίκροσσαι*, (XIV. 55.) parallel and behind one another, like the steps of a ladder. This is the meaning we learn from Herodotus, (VII. 183.)"

"‡ Iliad, XV. 653, &c. 408. 426. XIV, 34."

"§ Strabo (XIII. 890. A.). 'After Rhœteum follows Sigeum, a town in ruins, then the Station of the fleet, (*το Ναυστάθιον*), and the harbour of the Greeks, (*ὁ Ἀχαιῶν λιμὴν*), and the Grecian camp (*το Ἀχαιῶν στρατόπεδον*), and *Stomalimné*, and the mouth of the Scamander (viz. of the Scamander united with the Simoïs), then the promontory of Sigeum.' Compare Mela, I. 19. Pliny, V. 30. 35."

"§ Iliad, XI. ad init. It is true that in XVII. 432 it is said, that the horses of Achilles would not return without Patroclus to the Hellespont, *ἃ δ' ἐπιυῖες ἐπὶ πλατῶν Ἑλλήσποντον*. But this whole northern arm of the Ægean Sea, before the entrance of the strait, is more than once called the Hellespont. (Iliad, XVIII. 150. XXIV. 316. Odys. XXIV. 82. also Iliad, VII. 86. XII. 30. XV. 232. XXIII. 2.) And hence must be derived the explanation of the epithets *πλατὺς* and *ἀπείρων*, which do not seem well applied to the proper Hellespont; though, indeed, *breast* and *narrow* are relative terms."

monians;

monians; after these came several other corps; and lastly, on the right wing were the Myrmidons, with whom, it should seem, the other Thessalian tribes (the troops of Protefilæus excepted) were united.

"By this arrangement, the following passages appear both to be cleared up themselves, and to throw light on others in their turn. The post of Ajax is all along the most important. Towards this wing the main assault upon the camp takes place. To that side also the battles tend. When Nestor conducts the wounded Machaon into his own tent, Achilles is at such a distance that he sees only his back, and cannot distinctly recognise his person (XI. 596. 610. et seq.). Patroclus, dispatched by Achilles to make inquiry, in returning from Nestor passes the place where the ships of Ulysses are lying (XI. 805.). Just at this spot he finds Eurypylus, who was coming back from the engagement at the left wing wounded, and was going, it would appear, to the right wing, where probably his Thessalians were stationed. Machaon, though a Thessalian, was conducted by Nestor into his tent, probably because he was too much exhausted to be able to reach the right wing. The ships of Ulysses lay in the centre, so that, from thence, the shout, which called the troops to arms, could be heard on both

wings *. To this the form of the camp, which, from its position, extended more in depth than in length, probably contributed. Hard by these ships of Ulysses, and consequently behind the foremost row, was the place for holding the public assemblies, and for the altars for the sacrifices. (Iliad, XI. 806-7.) One of these, it should seem, was the altar of Jupiter Panomphæus †.

"The order of the ships in the catalogue (Iliad, II.) appears to have some connection with this arrangement in the camp, so that the Boeotians, and those after them, as far on as the Salaminians, under Ajax, belonged to the left wing. The Argives, and those next in order, as far as the Cretans, Rhodians, and other islanders, composed the centre. The Thessalians, with the Myrmidons, formed the right wing.

"The succession and order of the troops, when afterwards drawn up in the field of battle, is somewhat different. Agamemnon runs through the midst of the battle; and after passing some, who are not named, he comes to Idomeneus with the Cretans, to Ajax and the Salaminians, to Nestor with his Pylians, to the Athenians under Menestheus, to Ulysses, and lastly to Diomedes ‡.

"Agamemnon it appears went from the left to the right wing. Ulysses was at such a distance from the spot where the Trojans were pressing on to the assault,

* Iliad, XI. 5. These verses are likewise inserted, though rather awkwardly; lib. VIII. 222. et seq.

† Iliad, VIII. 249. 250. Ovid, Met. XI. 197. Apollo stands on the Trojan shore,

"Dextera Supi, Rhetei larva profundi"

"Ara Panomphæus vetus est parata Tenanti."

"What notion the editors have had of this passage, it is not easy to divine. At all events, a point must be put after *profound*, and that line must be understood as a complete sentence."

‡ Iliad, IV. 281, &c. The leaders and the corps are by no means all particularised by name. Thus, it appears from lib. XI. 808. II. 756, that the Thessalians, commanded by Eurypylus, were there."

that he as yet knew nothing of their approach. (IV. 331.) In the battle itself all order is lost; and the combatants, individuals as well as squadrons, are confusedly mixed with one another. (IV. 457, &c.)

"The ground in this neighbourhood must have experienced alterations by the overflowing of the rivers, as well as by the operation of the Simoïs at its mouth. Homer himself intimates this, when he takes notice, that not a trace of the wall of the Grecian camp was remaining. (Iliad, XII. ad init.) Herodotus also quotes the shore of Troy as an instance of such changes (lib. II. 10.). And should we even incline to reject the testimony of Strabo (lib. XIII. p. 890. A.), the fact may be regarded as certain. Whether the alterations of the ground, however, have been so great as Wood supposes, is a different question *.

"Before the camp, as already mentioned, a plain, gradually rising, stretched towards Troy, diversified, it would seem, with several little eminences †. That the two rivers, Simoïs and Scamander, inclosed this plain, and that farther down they united with each other,

Homer expressly testifies ‡; but he furnishes us with no further or more accurate information §. The field of battle lies in the neighbourhood of the Scamander §, and is called likewise the Scamandrian plain ¶, though it also receives, at least in the more immediate vicinity of the city, the epithet of Trojan **. More precisely still it is said, (Iliad, VI. 1, &c.) 'the battle raged between Simoïs and Xanthus.' The latter must have been nearest the Grecian camp; for when the Trojans had advanced very nigh the rampart, and lay a night in the field before it, they are said to be between the camp and the Scamander. (Iliad, VIII. 556.) At the Scamander †† Hector holds a council of war; and when the Trojans are compelled to retire from before the camp, the wounded Hector is laid down at the side of the Scamander. (Iliad, XIV. 433.) When, again, Patroclus drives the Trojans finally from the camp, he cuts off the retreat of a part of the fugitives to the city, forces them back towards the camp, and falls on them betwixt the station of the ships, the river, and the city ‡‡. Achilles, in advancing from the

"* M. Chevalier answers this question."

"† Of this kind was one immediately in front of the camp, the *Σκαμνὸς πεδῖος*. (Iliad, X. 100. XI. 56.) It lay just before the place for crossing the Scamander, in going from the camp, on the road towards Troy: for in the last battle the Trojans had taken post *ἐπὶ Σκαμνῷ πεδίῳ* (XX. 3.), and from thence they came, in the course of their flight, to the passage of the Xanthus, *πρὸς Ξάνθου*. (XXI. 2.) In so far the delineation, on M. Chevalier's map, is erroneous." H.

"‡ Iliad, V. 713. et seq. Vid. Strabo, XIII. p. 890. A. 892." C.

"§ Strabo says: 'A little way before the streams unite.' It is doubtful, however, whether by this expression he means between Ilium and the sea, or on the inland side of the town.

"¶ Iliad, V. 36. VII. 329. XI. 498-9."

"¶ Iliad, II. 465. 467."

"** Iliad, X. 11. XXIII. 464. Strabo, p. 892. C.

"†† For this must be the *ποταμὸς ἐπὶ δ' ἔντι*, of Iliad, VIII. 490.

"‡‡ *Νῆας καὶ ποταμὸν καὶ ταχέως ἐλθόντ'.* Μεσσηνί.

"*Νῆας καὶ ποταμὸν καὶ ταχέως ἐλθόντ'.* Iliad, XVI. 597.

"Here it is difficult to form a distinct idea of the topographical situation, unless we understand it thus: first, between the ships and the river; and farther on, between the river and the town."

camp to the Xanthus, drives a part of the flying enemy into the river; the rest escape to the town. (Iliad, XXI. 1. et seq.) Here it seems to be plainly intimated, that, on the way between the camp and the city, the river must be passed. And this is confirmed by several passages in the last book, where Priam, in going from the city to the Grecian camp, after passing the tomb of Ilus, arrives at the river—undoubtedly the Scamander. Here he waters his horses. (Iliad, XXIV. 349.) In returning, he comes again to the same spot (v. 692.); and here there was a place for crossing the river *. Homer guides us no farther.

“ I formerly thought it probable that Homer meant only a near approach of the two rivers, not an entire confluence of their streams; but this opinion I have long since abandoned. The scholiasts, and even Eustathius, give us no aid here; they rather mislead; they themselves had probably no ocular knowledge of the place. The scholia, however, on Iliad, II. 465. say, ‘ the Scamander comes from

‘ Ida, divides in the midst the plain
‘ that stretches to the shore, and
‘ discharges itself, on the left hand,
‘ into the sea.’ But how is this to be understood? If the left hand *from Troy* is spoken of, the present mouth, to the southward of Sigeum, must be intended; and on that supposition this mouth would be of considerable antiquity. If the commentator, however, means on the left hand going *from the shore* to Mount Ida, it is then the united stream of the Scamander and Simois that is said to fall into the sea at this place †.

“ Even in Strabo’s time the site of Old Ilium was unknown, and was a subject of dispute; but he marks out distinctly a *new* Ilium. Alexandria Troas was a different place from both, and lay more to the southward. New Ilium was twelve stadia (three-eighths of a German mile, somewhat less than two English miles) from the Grecian harbour. Thirty stadia (almost a German mile, or about four English miles and a half) higher up, eastward from New Ilium, and nearer Mount Ida, was situate Old

“ * Ἄλλ’ ὅτε δὴ πόντον ἔχον ἑσπέρην ποταμῶν.

————— 692.

“ It is here that M. Chevalier’s observations on the spot, and his delineation upon the map, give us so much light. The Scamander, as it came near the shore, directing its course obliquely over the plain, approached the Simois, and ran into it, exactly as described in Strabo. At present the Scamander is conducted into a canal, and discharges itself into the sea below Sigeum. This is one important observation made by M. Chevalier. There is another, also, relating to the sources of the Scamander. Still it is a perplexing circumstance, that, neither in the advancing, nor in the retreat, of the armies, is any express mention made of so important a circumstance as crossing the river. Almost all the passages, except perhaps the last, rather imply that the rivers run on each side.” II.

“ † I doubt whether any of the poets, Quintus of Smyrna, Tryphiodorus, or Cyprius, had an accurate knowledge of this neighbourhood. Tryphiodorus, for instance, says, (lin. 516.)

“ Ἰαχὲ καὶ Ξάνθου ποταμῶν κυκλούμενον ὕδαρ,

“ Καὶ στόμα κεκλήγει Σιμοῖσιν.

‘ Loud roar’d the Xanthus, and the mouth of the Simois;’ so they were not then united at the mouth. A little after, (lin. 519.) ‘ They were dragging the wooden horse, but were retarded, the way being intersected by rivers, and very uneven.’

“ Ὅδ’ ὅτ’ ἐπαχέμετο μακρῇ,

“ Σχιζομένη ποταμῶσι, καὶ ἃ πέλοισι ῥηϊνῇ.”

Ilium,

Ilium, on a spot where then stood a village named Ilium *.

"The road from the city of Troy to the sea-shore ran from the Scaean gate, past a beech tree, to the tomb of Ilius, on which stood a pillar †. Another monument was called Baticia, or the tomb of the Amazon Myrina, an insulated hillock, where the Trojans took post in the first battle. (Iliad, II. 811—15.) Upon another tomb, that of Ælyetes, son Polites, as a scout on behalf of the Trojans. (Iliad, II. 793.) The Scamander could not be far from the hillock where the tomb of Ilius was. (XXIV. 349. 350. Compare 692. 693.) Nearer the city, on the south-west side, and just under the walls, the watch-tower must have stood, where the deities resorted ‡. Next to it was the wild fig-tree ||, and the sources of the Scamander; and then the place where clothes were commonly washed. Before the city,

on the north side, was Callicoloné (καλλὶ κολόνε), a pleasant hill upon the Simois, five stadia in circumference, and ten stadia from the village Ilium §.

"That it should still be possible after such a lapse of time, to recognise all these places, is not to be expected; but there is one of them which we should think could even yet be traced, and which, if discovered, would furnish at once the most certain direction for all the rest, and even for the site of ancient Troy itself;—that is, the sources of the Scamander, so accurately and circumstantially described by Homer, (XXII. 147. et seq.), the one of them a warm and smoking fountain, the other, even in the middle of summer, of an icy coldness. Yet even here there is a very great chasm in our topographical knowledge. At the place where (according to Demetrius of Scepsis, whom Strabo follows) the Sca-

* Strabo, XIII. p. 889. 'Οὐ γὰρ (Ilius) ἐνταῦθα ἰδρυσεν τὴν πόλιν ὅν νῦν ἔστιν (New Ilium) ἀλλὰ σχεδὸν τι τριήκοντα [stadia] ἀνωτέρω πρὸς ἑᾶ, καὶ πρὸς τὴν Ἰδην, καὶ τὴν Δαρδανίαν, (as this old habitation of Dardanus lay still deeper in the mountains, II. XX. 216, 217. northward from Old Ilium. Strabo, XIII. p. 891. D.) κατὰ τὴν οὖν καλεμένην Ἰλίῳ κώμην Compare p. 791. A. 892. D. When Homer says of Ilium ἐν σεδῶι πεπλιστο, this is said in respect to Dardania, which lay among the mountains. Troy, however, actually stood at the foot of the hill, at the entrance of the valley or the plain."

† Iliad, XI. 166, 371. Here Hector had his post, on the night when he encamped before the Grecian camp. (X. 415.) Here Paris stood behind the pillar, when he wounded Diomedes with an arrow. (XI. 372.) Just by the beech Apollo stood near the city, and the place must likewise have commanded a view of the country. (XXI. 549.)"

‡ Ἑκτορία. (XX. 136.)

|| Ἐρινεύς. (XXII. 146. XI. 167.) Quite close upon the walls, and at the place where they were so low that the Greeks had once attempted to force their way into the city from that quarter. (VI. 433—9.)"

§ According to Strabo, (p. 802. D.) who borrowed this information from Demetrius of Scepsis. The Venetian scholiast A. upon Iliad, XX. 3, quotes the passage respecting Callicoloné, as if taken from the latter; but he mistakes this hillock for the *Σκαμνὸς πεδῖος* on the Scamander. He adds also, 'Here it was that Paris saw the three goddesses.' At v. 53. the observation is repeated, more justly indeed, but in a mutilated form. In all other respects, the places hitherto mentioned are determined by M. Chevalier with great plausibility and distinctness. I find upon the map, which I had not an opportunity of seeing till too late, the hill Callicoloné more rightly laid down, than, from the words of the Memoir, I had supposed; (see p. [145]) and I retract what I there advanced. The passages respecting Callicoloné (XX. 53. 151.) are not, as I imagined, contradictory."

mander had its rise, one spring only with Strabo in his hand, fought and was to be met with; and Wood, found this spring, and this alone*."

DISSERTATION ON SEMIRAMIS, the Origin of MECCA, &c. from the HINDU SACRED BOOKS, by Lieutenant FRANCIS WILFORD.

[From the fourth Volume of the ASIATIC RESEARCHES.]

"IN the Scanda-purana and Vihva-lara-pracala, or Declaration of what is most excellent in the world, we find the following legends, which have an evident relation to the origin of Semiramis, the Syrian dove, Ninus, and the building of Niniveh, Hierapolis, and Mecca, &c.

"Maha-deva and his consort Parvati, with a view to do good to mankind, quitted their divine abode on Cailasa, and proceeding towards the north, alighted on the summit of the Nishada mountains, where they found the Devatas ready to receive them, with a numerous retinue of celestial nymphs, and heavenly quirksters. Maha-deva was so struck with the beauty of some of the Apsaras, and his looks were so expressive of his internal raptures, that Parvati, unable to conceal her indignation, uttered the most virulent reproaches against him. Conscious of the impropriety of his behaviour, Maha-deva used every endeavour to pacify her; he humbled himself; he praised her, and addressed her by the flattering appellation of Maha-bhaga; but to no purpose. She fled into Cashia-

duip, on the mountains of Vahni-vyaptia, and seating herself in the hollow trunk of a Sami-tree, performed Tapasya (or austere devotion) for the space of nine years; when fire springing from her, pervaded with rapid violence the whole range of mountains, in so much, that men and animals were terrified, and fled with the utmost precipitation. Devi, unwilling that her devotion should prove a cause of distress to the animal creation, recalled the sacred flame, and confined it in the Sami-tree. She made the hollow of that tree her place of abode and dalliance; and hence she is called Sami-Rama, or she who dallies in the Sami-tree.

"The fugitives returning, performed the Puja in adoration of her, with songs in her praise. The flame confined in the Sami-tree still remains in it; and the Devatas are highly delighted with the fire, which is lighted from the Arani (or cubic wood of that tree). The Arani is the mother of fire, and is produced from the Sami-tree. From that time, this sacred tree gives an increase of virtue, and bestows wealth and corn. In the month of Asvina

* * Strabo, p. 896-9. Wood, p. 634. (28 of the German translation). And yet Mr. Wood did meet with a hot spring, and in the place where he was not looking for the Scamander. (p. 629.) M. Chevalier was more fortunate in this respect. He searched for and discovered the source of the Scamander, precisely at the hot spring; and thus cleared up the whole matter in doubt."

or Cooar, the tenth of the first fifteen days of the moon is kept holy, and Puja is made to Sami-Rama and to the Sami-tree; and those who perform it obtain the object of their desires. This sacred rite I have hitherto kept concealed from the world, says Maha-deva, but now I make it known for the good of mankind; and whatsoever performs it, will be victorious over his enemies for the space of one year.

“During these transactions, Viveswara-Maha-deva, or Casi-pati (that is to say, Maha-deva, the lord of the world and sovereign of Cail or Benares), visited the country of Purushotama, in Utcala-defa or Orissa; which he was surprised to find overspread with long grass, and without inhabitants. He resolved to destroy the long grass, and for this purpose, assuming the diminutive shape of a dove, with an angry countenance, commenced the performance of Tapasya; his consort Devi also transformed herself into a bird of the same species; and from that time they were known to mankind, and worshipped under the titles of Capoteswara and Capotesi, or Iswara and Isi, in the shape of a dove. They set fire to the Cussha, or long grass, and the country became like Vindrapur (near Muttra), and was soon filled with inhabitants. The spot where they performed their Tapasya, is called to this day Capoteswari, or the place of the dove. It is a celebrated place of worship, and, as I am informed, about five coss from Jagannath.

“Almost the whole universe was likewise at this time overspread with long grass; and to destroy it, Maha-deva, with his consort, resolved to travel round the world. They accordingly proceeded into Cussha-duip, which they found

thinly inhabited by a few Mlechhas, or impure tribes, and the Yavanas, who concealed their booty in the grass which covered the country.

“Maha-deva took compassion on them, and considering their sufferings in this inhospitable country as a sort of Tapasya, he resolved to bestow Mochha, or eternal bliss, on them: for this purpose he assumed the character and countenance of Mochheswara or Iswara, who bestows Mochha; and directed his consort Capotesi, who is also called Maha-bhaga, to go to Vahni-s’han, on the borders of Cussha-duipa; there to make Tapasya, in order to destroy the long grass. Accordingly she went into Vahni-s’han; and that she might effect it without trouble to herself, she assumed another form: from which circumstance she was named Anayasa. In this character she seated herself on a beautiful hill, and there made Tapasya for many days. At last fire sprung from her devotion, and its presiding power standing before her, she directed him to destroy the Cussha; when the hills were soon in a blaze, and the Yavanas and other Mlechhas obtaining Mochha, were re-united to the supreme being, without labour or effect on their part; that is to say, they were involved in the general conflagration and destroyed.

“When the grass was consumed, Anayasa ordered the clouds to gather and pour their waters on the land, which was soon overflowed. The waters then retired, and the four great tribes came into Cussha-duip, where they soon formed a powerful nation, and became rich and happy. After the conflagration, all sorts of metals and precious stones were found throughout the country. The countenance of

Anayasa-devi is that of fire; and a most divine form it is.

“The inhabitants soon after deviating from the paths of rectitude, became like the Mlecch’has: and the Yavanas re-entered Cussha-duip, plundering and laying waste the whole country. The four tribes applied to Anayasa, offered praises to her, and requested she would protect them against the Yavanas, and dwell among them. Mahabhaga assented, and the spot which she chose for her abode is called Mahabhaga-st’han, or the place of Mahabhaga.

“In the mean time Maha-deva was at Mochsha-st’han, or Mochhesa, bestowing Mochsha on all who came to worship there. It is a most holy place; and there Maha-deva laid aside the countenance and shape of Capoteswara, and assumed that of Mochheswara.

“Among the first votaries of Maha-deva, who repaired to Mochsha-st’han, was Virasena, the son of Guhyaca. He had been making Tapasya for a long time, in honour of Maha-deva, who at last appeared to him, and made him king over St’havaras, or the immovable part of the creation. Hence he was called St’havara-pati; and the hills, trees, plants, and grasses of every kind were ordered to obey him. His native country was near the sea; and he began his reign with repressing the wicked, and insisting on all his subjects walking in the paths of justice and rectitude. In order to make his sovereignty acknowledged throughout the world, he put himself at the head of a numerous army; and directing his course towards the north, he arrived at Mochsha-st’han, where he performed the Puja in honour of Mochheswara, according to the rites prescribed in the sacred books.

From Mochhesa he advanced towards the Agni-parvatas, or fire-mountains, in Vahnist’han; but they refused to meet him with presents, and to pay tribute to him. Incensed at their insolence, St’havar-pati resolved to destroy them; the officers on the part of Sami-Rama, the sovereign of Vahnist’han, assembled all their troops, and met the army of St’havar pati; but after a bloody conflict, they were put to flight.

“Sami-Rama, amazed, inquired who this new conqueror was: and soon reflected that he could never have prevailed against her, without a boon from Maha-deva, obtained by the means of what is called Ugra-Tapasya, or a Tapasya performed with fervor, earnestness of desire, and anger. She had a conference with St’havar-pati; and as he was, through his Tapasya, become a son of Maha-deva, she told him she considered him in that light, and would allow him to command over all the hills, trees, and plants in Vahni-st’han. The hills then humbled themselves before St’havar-pati, and paid tribute to him.

“The origin of Ninus is thus related in the same sacred books. One day, as Maha-deva was rambling over the earth naked, and with a large club in his hand, he chanced to pass near the spot where several Munis were performing their devotions. Maha-deva laughed at them, insulted them in the most provoking and indecent terms; and lest his expressions should not be forcible enough, he accompanied the whole with significant signs and gestures. The offended Munis cursed him, and the Linga or Phallus fell to the ground. Maha-deva, in this state of mutilation, travelled over the world, bewailing his misfortune.

fortune. His consort too, hearing of this accident, gave herself up to grief, and ran after him in a state of distraction, repeating mournful songs. This is what the Greek mythologists called the 'Wanderings of Damater,' and the 'Lamentations of Bacchus.'

"The world being thus deprived of its vivifying principle, generation and vegetation were at a stand; gods and men were alarmed; but having discovered the cause of it, they all went in search of the sacred Linga; and at last found it grown to an immense size, and endowed with life and motion.

"Having worshipped the sacred pledge, they cut it, with hatchets, into one-and-thirty pieces, which, polypus-like, soon became perfect Lingas. The Devatas left one-and-twenty of them on earth; carried nine into heaven, and removed one into the infernal regions, for the benefit of the inhabitants of the three worlds. One of these Lingas was erected on the banks of the Cumud-vati, or Euphrates, under the name of Balefwara-Linga, or the Linga of Iswara the Infant, who seems to answer to the Jupiter Puer of the western mythologists. To satisfy Devi, and restore all things to their former situation, Maha-deva was born again in the character of Balefwara, or Iswara the Infant. Balefwara, who fosters and preserves all, though a child, was of uncommon strength; he had a beautiful countenance; his manners were most engaging; and his only wish was to please every body, in which he succeeded effectually; but his subjects waited with impatience till he came to the age of maturity, that he might bless them with an heir to his virtues. Balefwara, to please them, threw off his childlike appearance, and

suddenly became a man, under the title of Lilefwara, or Iswara, who gives pleasure and delight. He then began to reign over gods and men, with the strictest adherence to justice and equity: his subjects were happy, and the women beheld with extasy his noble and manly appearance. With the view of doing good to mankind, he put himself at the head of a powerful army, and conquered many distant countries, destroying the wicked, and all oppressors. He had the happiness of his subjects, and of mankind in general, so much at heart, that he entirely neglected every other pursuit. His indifference for the female sex alarmed his subjects: he endeavoured to please them; but his embraces were fruitless. This is termed Asc'halana in Sanscrit; and the place where this happened was in consequence denominated Asc'halanast'han. The Asparas, or celestial nymphs, tried in vain the effect of their charms. At last Sami-Rama came to Asc'halanast'han, and retiring into a solitary place in its vicinity, chanted her own metamorphoses and those of Lilefwara, who happening to pass by, was so delighted with the sweetness of her voice, that he went to her and inquired who she was. She related to him how they went together into Utcoladesa in the characters of the Capoteswara and Capotesi; adding, you appeared then as Mocshefwara, and I became Anayasa; you are now Lilefwara, and I am Sami-Rama, but I shall be soon Lilefwara. Lilefwara, being under the influence of Maya, or worldly illusion, did not recollect any of these transactions; but supposing that the person he was speaking to might be a manifestation of Parvati, he thought it advisable to marry her;

her; and having obtained her consent, he seized her hand, and led her to the performance of the nuptial ceremony, to the universal satisfaction of his subjects. Gods and men met to solemnize this happy union; and the celestial nymphs and heavenly quilters graced it with their presence. Thus Sami-Rama and Lilewara commenced their reign, to the general satisfaction of mankind, who were happy under their virtuous administration.

"From that period the three worlds began to know and worship Lilewara, who, after he had conquered the universe, returned into Cushta-duipa. Lilewara having married Sami-Rama, lived constantly with her, and followed her wherever she chose to go: in whatever pursuits and pastimes she delighted, in these alone he took pleasure; thus they travelled over hills and through forests to distant countries; but at last returned to Cushta-duip: and Sami-Rama seeing a delightful grove near the Hradancita (or deep water), with a small river of the same name, expressed a wish that he would fix the place of their residence in this beautiful spot, there to spend their days in pleasure.

"This place became famous afterwards, under the name of Lila-si'han, or the place of delight. The water of the Hradancita is very limpid, and abounds with Camala-flowers, or red Lotos.

"Sami-Rama is obviously the Semiramis of the western mythologists, whose appellation is derived from the Sanscrit Sami-Ramesi, or Isi (Isis) dallying in the Sami, or Fir-tree. The title of Sami-Ramesi is not to be found in the Puranas; but it is more grammatical than the other; and it is absolutely

necessary to suppose the word Isi or Isis in composition, in order to make it intelligible.

"Diodorus Siculus informs us that she was born at Ascalon: the Purana, that her first appearance in Syria was at As'halana-si'han, or the place where Lilefa or Ninus had As'halana.

"The defeat of Semiramis by Staurobates, is recorded in the Purana with still more extravagant circumstances; for Staurobates is obviously Sthawara-pati, or Sthawara-pati, as it is more generally pronounced.

"The places of worship mentioned in the above legends are Mochhesa or Mochha-si'han, As'halana-si'han or As'nalana-si'han, two places of the name of Lila-si'han or Lilefa-si'han, Anayasa-devi-si'han and Maha-bhaga-si'han.

"The Brahmens in the western parts of India insist that Mochha-si'han is the present town of Mecca. The word Mochha is always pronounced in the vulgar dialects either Moca or Mucha; and the author of the Dabistan says, its ancient name was Moca: we find it called Maco Raba, by Ptolemy, or Moca the great or illustrious. Guy Patin mentions a medal of Antoninus Pius with this legend, 'MOK. IEP. AXT. ATTO.' Which he very properly translates *Moca sacra, inviolabilis, suis utens legibus.* 'Moca' 'the holy, the inviolable, and using 'her own laws.' This, in my humble opinion, is applicable only to Mecca, or Mochha si'han, which the Puranas describe as a most holy place. The Arabian authors unanimously confirm the truth of the above legend; and it is ridiculous to apply it to an obscure and insignificant place in Arabia Petrea, called also Moca. It may be objected, that it does not appear that Mecca

Mecca was ever a Roman colony. I do not believe it ever was; but at the same time it is possible that some connection for commercial purposes might have existed between the rulers of Mecca and the Romans in Egypt. The learned are not ignorant that the Romans boasted a little too much of their progress in Arabia; and even medals were struck with no other view, apparently, but to impose on the multitude at Rome. It is unfortunate that we do not meet in the Puranas with the necessary data to ascertain, beyond doubt, the situation of Moschela. From the particulars contained in them, however, it appears to have been situated a great way to the westward, with respect to India, and not far from Egypt and Ethiopia, as has been shewn in a former dissertation on these countries, in the third volume of the Asiatic Researches.

"It is declared in the Puranas that Capoteswara and his consort Capotesi, in the shape of two doves, remained there for some time; and Arabian authors inform us, that in the time of Mohammed, there was in the temple of Mecca a pigeon carved in wood, and another above this: to destroy which, Mohammed lifted Ali upon his shoulders. These pigeons were most probably placed there in commemoration of the arrival of Maha-deva and Devi, in the shape of two doves.

"The worship of the dove seems to have been peculiar to India, Arabia, Syria, and Assyria. We read of Semiramis being seduced by doves in the desert; and of her vanishing at last from the sight of men, in the shape of a dove; and, according to the Puranas, Capotesi, or the dove, was but a manifestation of Samirama.

"The dove seems to have been

in former times the device of the Assyrian, as the eagle was of the Roman empire; for we read in Isaiah, 'And the inhabitants of this country shall say in that day, such was our expectation! behold whether we wanted to fly for help from the face of the dove; but how could we have escaped?'

"I have adhered chiefly to the translation of Tremellius, which appears the most literal, and to be more expressive of the idea which the prophet wished to convey to the Jews, who wanted to fly to Egypt and Ethiopia, to avoid falling into the hands of the Assyrians; but were to be disappointed by the fall of these two empires.

"All commentators have unanimously understood Assyria by the dove, and have translated the above passage accordingly. Capoteli, or the Assyrian dove, was also mentioned in a song, current in these countries, and which seems to refer to some misfortune that had befallen the Assyrians. The 56th psalm is directed to be sung to the tune of that song, which was known to every body; and for this purpose the first verse, as usual, is inserted. 'The dove of distant countries is now struck dumb.'

"The Hindus further insist, that the black stone in the wall of the Caaba is no other than the Linga or Phallus of Maha-deva; and that, when the Caaba was rebuilt by Mohammed (as they affirm it to have been) it was placed in the wall, out of contempt; but the new converted pilgrims would not give up the worship of the black stone; and sinister portents forced the ministers of the new religion to connive at it. Arabian authors also inform us that stones were worshipped all over Arabia, particularly at Mecca; and Al-shahrestani says,

says, that the temple at Mecca was dedicated to Zohal or Kyevun, who is the same with Saturn. The author of the Dabistan declares positively that the Hejar al aswad, or the black stone, was the image of Kyevun. Though these accounts somewhat differ from those in the Puranas, yet they shew that this black stone was the object of an idolatrous worship from the most remote times.

“ The mussulmen, in order to palliate their idolatry towards it, have contrived other legends. Kyevun is the Chyun of scripture, also called Remphan, which is interpreted the god of time. If so, Chyun, or Kyevun, must be Maha-deva, called also Maha-cala: a denomination of the same import with Remphan, the Egyptians called Horus, the lord of time; and Horus is the same with Hara, or Maha-deva.

“ The reason of this tradition is, that the Sabians, who worshipped the seven planets, seem to have considered Saturn as the lord of time, on account of the length of its periodical revolution; and it appears from the Dabistan, that some ancient tribes in Persia had contrived a cycle of years, consisting of the revolution of Saturn repeatedly multiplied by itself.

“ *Arc'hala st'han*, or *Ast'halana-st'han*, is obviously Ascalon; there Semiramis was born, according to Diodorus Siculus, or, according to the Puranas, there she made her first appearance.

“ *Maha-bhaga-st'han* is the *st'han* or place of Sami Rama, in the character of Maha-bhaga, or the great and prosperous goddess. This implies also that the bestowal of greatness and prosperity on her votaries.

“ We cannot but suppose that the *st'han* of Maha-bhaga is the an-

cient town of Mabog, called now Menbigz and Menbig: the Greeks called it Hierapolis, or the holy city: it was a place of great antiquity; and there was a famous temple dedicated to the Syrian goddess, whose statue of gold was placed in the center, between those of Jupiter and Juno. It had a golden dove on its head; hence some supposed it was designed for Semiramis; and it was twice every year carried to the sea-side in procession. This statue was obviously that of the great goddess, or Maha-bhaga-devi, whose history is intimately connected with that of the dove in the western mythologists, as well as in the Puranas.

“ An ancient author thus relates her origin: ‘*Dicitur et Euphratis fluvio ovum piscis Columba adfedisse dies plurimos, et exclusisse deam benignam et misericordem hominibus ad bonam vitam.*’ It is related that a dove hatched the egg of a fish, near the Euphrates, and that after many days of incubation came forth the goddess, merciful and propitious to men, on whom she bestows eternal bliss.’ Others said that fishes rolled an egg on the dry land, where it was hatched by a dove, after which appeared the Syrian goddess.

“ Her origin is thus related in the Puranas: The Yavanas having for a long time vexed the inhabitants of Cusha-duip, they at last applied for protection to Maha-bhaga-devi, who had already appeared in that country in the characters of Sami-Rama and Capotesi, or Isi, in the shape of a dove; they requested also that she would vouchsafe to reside amongst them. The merciful goddess granted their request; and the place where she made her abode was called the *st'han*, or place of Maha-bhaga.

“ The

"The Syrian name of Mabog is obviously derived from Maha-bhaga. This contraction is not uncommon in the western dialects, derived from the Sanscrit; and Helychius informs us that the Greeks pronounced the Hindu word Maha great, Mai. Mabog is mentioned by Pliny, where we read Magog: but Mr. Danville shews that it should be Mabog: I conclude, from some manuscript copies. This is also confirmed by its present name, which is to this day Manbig or Manbeg. We find it also called Bambukeh (*Βαμβυκη*, Bambyce); and in Niebuhr's Travels it is called Bombadsche: I suppose for Bombaksche or Mombigz: but this is equally corrupted from Ma'abhaga. In the same manner we say Bombay for Momba: and what is called in India Bambu or Pambu, is called Mambu in Thibet.

"The temple of Mabog was frequented by all nations; and amongst them were pilgrims from India, according to Lucian, as cited by the authors of the Ancient Universal History.

"Mabog, or Hierapolis, was called also Old Ninus, or Niniveh, according to Ammianus Marcellinus, and Philostratus: and there is no mistake in Diodorus Siculus and Ctesias, when they assert that there was a town called Niniveh near the Euphrates. Scripture also seems to place Niniveh thereabout; for it is said that Rezen was between Niniveh and Calach. And the situation of Rezen, called also Refaina by ancient authors, and Razain by the moderns, is well known, as well as that of Calach on the banks of the Lycus, now the Zab, to the eastward of the Tigris. Niniveh, of course, must have been to the westward of these two places, and falls where the Old Ninus is point-

ed out by Ammianus, Philostratus, &c.

"Two places of that name are mentioned in the Puranas, under the name of Lilast'han, the st'han or place of Lilefa or Ninus. There can be no doubt, in my humble opinion, of their identity; for Sami-Rama is obviously Semiramis. Ninus was the son of Belus, and according to the Puranas, Lilefa sprung from Baleswara, or Balesa; for both denominations, being perfectly synonymous, are indifferently used in the Puranas.

"Niniveh on the Tigris seems to be the st'han of Lilefa, where he laid aside the shape and countenance of Balesa, and assumed that of Lilefa. The other place of Lilefa, which Sami-Rama, delighted with the beauty of the spot, chose for the place of her residence, is Hierapolis, called also Ninus or Niniveh: hence we find her statue in the temple of Maha-bhaga. It is said to have been situated near a deep pool, or small lake, called from that circumstance Hradancita; and the pool near the temple of Hierapolis was described to be two hundred fathoms deep. Sami-Rama is represented in a most amiable light in the Puranas, as well as her consort Lileswara, or Lilefa.

"Stephanus of Byzantium says that Ninus lived at a place called Telane, previous to his building Niniveh; but this place, I believe, is not mentioned by any other author.

"Ninus is with good reason supposed to be the Assur of scripture, who built Niniveh; and Assur is obviously the Iswara of the Puranas, with the title of Lileswara, Lilefa, or Ninus. The word Iswara, though generally applied to deities, is also given in the Puranas to kings; it signifies lord and sovereign.

"With

“ With respect to the monstrous origin of Balesa, and the thirty-one Phall; my pundit, who is an astronomer, suspects it to be an attempt to reconcile the course of the moon to that of the sun, by dividing the synodical revolution into thirty-one parts, which may represent also three hundred and ten years. As this correction is now disused, he could give me no further information concerning it. To the event related is ascribed the origin of the Linga or Phallus, and of its worship: it is said to have happened on the banks of the Cumudavati, or Euphrates; and the first Phallus, under the name of Sakt-wara-Linga, was erected on its banks. This is confirmed by Diodorus Siculus, who says that Semiramis brought an obelisk from the mountains of Armenia, and erected it in the most conspicuous part of Babylon: it was 150 feet high, and is reckoned, by the same author, as one of the seven wonders of the world. The Jews in their Talmud allude to something of this kind; speaking of the different sorts of earths, of which the body of Adam was formed, they say that the earth which composed his generative parts was brought from Babylonia.

“ The next place of worship is the sthan of Anayasa-devi; this is obviously the ἱερὸν τῆς Ἀναίας (hieron tes Anaías) of Strabo, or the temple of the goddess Anaia, or Anaías, with its burning spring of Naphtha. They are upon a hill-lock, called Corcura by the ancients, and now known by the name of Corcoor: it is near Kerkook, and to the eastward of the Tigris. To this day it is visited by pilgrims from India; and I have been fortunate enough to meet with four or five who had

paid their devotions at this holy place. I consulted them separately and their accounts were as satisfactory as could be expected. They call it Juala-muc’hi, or the flaming mouth.

“ This conflagration is minutely described by Diodorus Siculus, who says, that in former times a monster called Alcida, who vomited flames, appeared in Phrygia; hence spreading along mount Taurus, the conflagration burnt down all the woods, as far as India; then, with a retrograde course, swept the forests of mount Liban, and extended as far as Egypt and Africa: at last a stop was put to it by Minerva.

“ The Phrygians remembered well this conflagration, and the flood which followed it; but as they could not conceive that it could originate from a benevolent goddess, they transformed her into a monster, called Alcida. Alcida however is an old Greek word, implying strength and power, and is therefore synonymous with Saca or Saeta-devi, the principal form of Sami-Rama, and other manifestations of the female power of nature.

“ Indeed the names and titles of most of the Babylonian deities are pure Sanscrit; and many of them are worshipped to this day in India, or at least their legends are to be found in the Puranas.

“ Thus Semiramis is derived from Sami-Ramesh, or Sami-Rama, and Sami-Rama-devi.

“ Milita from Militia-devi, because she brings people together (Connuba).

“ Shacka or Saca, is from the Sanscrit Saeta-devi, pronounced Saca in the vulgar dialects: it implies strength and power.

“ Slamba, or Salambo, is from Sar-

Sarwamba, often pronounced Salwamba: it signifies the mother of all: and she is the *magna mater* of the western mythologists.

“Devi is called also Antargati, or Antargata, because she resides within the body, or in the heart, and thereby gives strength and courage. This is the goddess of victory in India, and they have no other: it is declared in the Puranas, that she was called Antrast’hi (a title of the same import with the former) in the forests of Vishnula-van, on the banks of the river Tamasa, in Chandra-duip: from Antrast’hi the old Britons, or rather the Romans, made Andraсте.

“The Babylonian goddess was called also the Queen of Heaven; and to this day a form of devi, with the title of Svergar-radni-devi, or Devi, Queen of Heaven, is worshipped in India.

“Rhea is from Hriya-devi, or the bashful or modest goddesses.

“Rakh is from Racešwara: a name of Lunus, from one of his favourite wives called Raca: it signifies also the full orb of the moon.

“Nabo, or Nebo, is Iswara with the title of Nava, or Naba, the celestial.

“Nargal is from Anargaleswara; that is, he who is independent.

“Adram-melech is from Adharm-eswara; for Iswara and Melech, in the Chaldaean language, are synonymous.

“Adharmeswara is thus called, because he punishes those who deviate from the paths of justice and rectitude.

“Anam-melech is from Anameswara, or Iswara, who, though above all, behaves to all with meekness and affability.

“Nimrod is from Nima-Rudra,

because Rudra, or Maha-deva, gave him half of his own strength.

“Vahni-st’han, called also Agni-st’han, is said in some Puranas to be in Cussha-duip; and in others, to be on the borders of it. It includes all the mountainous country from Phrygia to Herat. Vahnist’han and Agnist’han are denominations of the same import, and signify the country or seat of fire, from the numerous volcanoes and burning springs which are to be found all along this extensive range of mountains. The present Azar-Baijan is part of it, and may be called Vahni-st’han proper. Azar, in the old Persian, signifies fire; and Baijan, a mine or spring. This information was given to me by Mr. Duncan, resident of Benares, who was so kind as to consult on this subject with Mehdi-Ali-Khan, one of the Aumils of the Zemindary of Benares. He is a native of Khorassan, and well acquainted with the antiquities of his own country, and of Iran in general. According to him, the principal Baijan, or spring of fire, is at a place called Baut-Chubch, in Azar-Baijan. Vahnist’han is called also Vahni-vyapta, from the immense quantity of fire collected in that country. There are many places of worship remaining throughout Iran, still resorted to by devout pilgrims. The principal are Balk and the Pyraum, near Herat; Hinglaz, or Anclooje, near the sea, and about eighty miles from the mouth of the Indus: it is now deserted; but there remain twenty-four temples of Bhavani. This place, however, is seldom visited, on account of the difficulties attending the journey to it.

“Ganga-waz, near Congo, on the Persian Gulph; another place of pilgrimage, where are many caves,

caves, with springs in the mountains.

"The st'han of Calyana-Raya and Govinda-Raya, two incarnations of Vishnu, is in the centre of Bussora, on the banks of the Euphrates; and there are two statues carefully concealed from the sight of the Mussulmans.

"Anayasa-devi-st'han has been already mentioned; and the great Juala-muc'hi is the designation of the springs of Naphtha, near Baku.

"There is also another Hindu place of worship at Baharein (El Katif) and another at Astrachan, where the few Hindus who live there worship the Volga, under the name of Surya-muc'hi-Ganga: the legends relating to this famous river are to be found in the Puranas, and confirm the information of the pilgrims who have visited these holy places. There are still many Hindus dispersed through that immense country; they are unknown to the Mussulmans; and they pass for Guebris, as they call them here, or Parsis. There is now at Benares a Brahmen of the name of Devi-das, who is a native of Mesched; he was introduced lately to my acquaintance by Mr. Duncan; and he informed me that it was supposed there were about 2000 families of Hindus in Khorasan; that they called themselves Hindi; and are known to the Mussulmans of the country under that appellation.

"This, in my opinion, accounts for the whole country to the south of the Caspian sea, from Khorasan and Arrokhage, as far as the Black sea, being called India by the ancients; and its inhabitants in various places Sindi: it is implicitly confirmed by the Puranas, in which it is said that the Surya-muc'-

hi-Ganga, or Volga, falls into the sea of Scind. The Hindus near Baku and at Astrachan, call it the New sea, because they say it did not exist formerly. They have legends about it, which, however, my learned friend Vidhya-nath could not find in the Puranas.

"According to the pilgrims I have consulted, there are about twenty or thirty families of Hindus at Balk; and Eusebius informs us, that there were Hindus in Bactriana in his time. There are as many families at Gangawaz, or Congo; about one hundred at Bussora; and a few at Baharein: these informed Purana-puri, a Yoyi and famous traveller, called also Urd'hwabahu, because he always keeps his hands elevated above his head, that formerly they corresponded and traded with other Hindus on the banks of the river Nila, in the country of Mistr; and that they had once a house or factory at Cairo; but that, on account of the oppression of the Turks and the roving Arabs, there had been no intercourse between them for several generations. There are no Hindus at Anayafadevi, or Corcoor; but they compute a large number in the vicinity of Baku and Derbend. The Shroffs at Samakhi are Banyans or Hindus, according to the Dictionary of Commerce, and of Trevoux, as cited in the French Encyclopedia.

"The Cubanis who live near Derbend, are Hindus, as my friend Purana-puri was told at Baku and Astrachan, in his way to Moscow; and their Brahmens are said to be very learned; but, as he very properly observed, this ought to be understood relatively on a comparison with the other Hindus in Persia, who are extremely ignorant.

"His relation is in a great measure

ture confirmed by Strahlenberg, who calls them Cuba and Cubatzin; and says that they live near Derbend, and are a distinct people, supposed to be Jews, and to speak still the Hebrew language.

“ The Sanscrit characters might easily be mistaken for the black Hebrew letters by superficial observers, or persons but conversant in initials of this nature.

“ The Arani, figuratively called the daughter of the Sami tree, and the mother of fire, is a cubic piece of wood about five inches in diameter, with a small hole in the upper part. A stick of the same sort of wood is placed in this cavity, and put in motion by a string held by two men, or fixed to a bow. The friction soon produces fire, which is used for all religious purposes, and also for dressing food. Every Brahmen ought to have an Arani; and when they cannot procure one from the Sami tree, which is rather scarce in this part of India, they make it with the wood of the Asvatt’ha, or Pippala tree. This is also a sacred tree, and they distinguish two species of it; the Pippala, called

in the vulgar dialects Pipal, and the Chalat-palassa. The leaves of this last are larger, but the fruit is smaller, and not so numerous as in the former species. It is called Chalat-palassa, from the tremulous motion of its leaves. It is very common in the hills, and the vulgar name for it is Popala; from which I suppose is derived the Latin word populus; for it is certainly the trembling poplar or Aspen tree.

“ The festival of Semiramis falls always on the tenth day of the lunar month of Aswina, which this year coincided with the fourth of October. On this day lamps are lighted in the evening under the Sami tree; offerings are made of rice and flowers, and sometimes strong liquors; the votaries sing the praise of Sami-Rama-devi and the Sami tree; and having worshipped them, carry away some of the leaves of the tree, and earth from the roots, which they keep carefully in their houses till the return of the festival of Semiramis in the ensuing year.”

MISCELLANEOUS PAPERS.

LETTER on the CULTIVATION of the TRUE RHUBARB, by MR. THOMAS JONES.

[From the sixteenth Volume of the TRANSACTIONS of the SOCIETY instituted at LONDON, for the ENCOURAGEMENT of ARTS, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE.]

“ SIR,

“ IF ever the cultivation of rhubarb in this kingdom becomes so extensive as to supersede the necessity of its importation; to the Society for the Promotion of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, will the community be indebted for an advantage, the magnitude and importance of which cannot be too highly appreciated. From whatever cause, which it is unnecessary here to investigate, certain it is, the consumption of this valuable drug is increased, and continues to do so to a very great degree. All calculation, from a variety of circumstances, must be vague; but I do not think sir William Fordyce, in speaking of the value of the importation, is much mistaken, when he estimates the annual amount at 200,000*l.* sterling. Whether this statement is true to the extent or not, how forcibly it must strike to the conviction of every one, and how much to be lamented, that a country like England, whose commercial consequence is solely dependent on the industry of its inhabitants, and the productions of

its soil, should be indebted to other climates, and other soils, for that which, I am more than ever persuaded, is congenial to its own!

“ The Society, feeling all the force of this observation, have endeavoured, for a considerable period, to promote a remedy; and every attentive observer cannot fail being impressed with the wisdom and prudence that have governed their conduct.

“ Till the fact was rendered so indisputable as to defy all controversy, instead of stimulating the speculative to undertakings, most certainly very expensive, and after all of doubtful benefit, they first confined themselves within such a limit, as that the requisition appeared more like an experiment than any thing else. In time, certain claimants, preferring their different pretensions, established by actual experiment the practicability of the measure; and hence, with a perseverance and liberality that will ever redound to their honour, they now stipulate for more extensive performances, and, besides their honorary gold medal, offer this year a
hand

handsome pecuniary reward, at the option of the claimant.

"It would seem too much like affectation, were I, on the present occasion, to disclaim every idea of pride; I freely confess the repeated favours of such an institution, and that perhaps I may have been, in some measure, instrumental in forwarding its patriotic designs, are considerations calculated to influence a mind less susceptible of vanity than I apprehend mine to be. Yes, Sir, in sending you the enclosed certificate I cannot restrain my feelings: I do experience a considerable degree of pride as well as pleasure, being conscious of having fulfilled my pledge to the society, and entertaining the flattering hope of being again honoured with its approbation.

"I have heard it asked, that as the advantages have been represented as so apparent, whence is it that the cultivators of rhubarb are not more numerous, and how it happens that an object of such obvious benefit should stand in need of any farther encouragement?

"These questions will require no answer, when it is recollected that, however inviting the advantages may be, their distance alone is enough to operate as an almost insurmountable obstacle to a general cultivation; but the more so, when it is further considered, that after all they are not quite so certain as the projector may flatter himself.

"To influence therefore the generality, and particularly those classes (who must be engaged in this undertaking to produce all the effect we desire, more especially as in the present case, where the return cannot be either prompt or speedy) to deviate from their ordinary habits and pursuits, such a system of re-

wards must be adopted as to suit the general disposition. It was, I dare say, this consideration that induced the varied measure of the society already alluded to. They seem to have taken up the matter with the earnestness it deserves: and under their countenance I will venture to predict the best consequences. As the subject continues to be investigated, the difficulties will necessarily subside; and the profits being rendered more secure, the undertaking will become sufficiently lucrative not to require any additional incitement.

"The prevailing prejudice for foreign commodities seems to me to be of infinitely more consequence than any obstacle that can impede its general cultivation; but even this, strong and powerful as it is, self-interest will overcome; and if the cultivator is circumspect, and as much as possible endeavours to give British rhubarb the appearance of the foreign, and at the same time moderates his pecuniary expectations, there can be little danger of its rising in the public estimation. I purposely omit noticing here its medicinal qualities, as, from the general testimony, they are not likely to be questioned; all accounts agreeing that rhubarb, so cultivated as to arrive at six or seven years' growth, and properly cured, will possess all the virtues the most sanguine can desire.

"In this place it will be proper to notice what I cannot help considering as very material: it is, that, without a persevering attention throughout, the skill of the curer will be exerted to very little purpose; as I conceive all the difficulties to arise principally, if not entirely, from want of care and circumspection in the cultivator. In

other words, at a proper age it will have acquired a certain degree of woodiness and solidity, that will be found greatly to facilitate this last operation: indeed, I begin to suspect this to be the whole of the secret. Unfortunately, such is the natural succulence of this plant, and its liability to decay, as to require an unremitting assiduity to prevent the one, in its progress towards the other. But as, in my former letters, I laid peculiar stress upon this point whenever it came under consideration, and having noticed it hereafter, it becomes unnecessary here to say more, than that persons will find themselves miserably deceived, if, when the plantation is completed, they imagine nothing more to be done than to wait the harvest. In the same letters, my method of culture being so minutely described (a method that possesses no other recommendation than simplicity), I shall pass it over for the same reason; and, in the further prosecution of this subject, avoiding repetition as much as is consistent with plainness, shall content myself with laying before the society a few general hints, which, being the result of actual observation, may perhaps prove useful to future cultivators.

“First.—In the choice of a situation, I do not think the aspect very material, provided it is not shaded too much on the south or west; but it must be obvious, the smaller number of surrounding trees the better, as the roots of the one may naturally be expected to interfere with those of the other. The indispensable points are the depth and good quality of the soil; and if, with these advantages, the plantation can be placed in a gentle declivity, such a si-

tuation may be said to be very eligible.”

“Secondly.—If the ground to be converted to this purpose is a greenward, no time will be really lost by a little delay. Suffer a season or two to elapse before the plantation is attempted, that the turf may be entirely decayed, the soil in general more ameliorated, and, what is of more consequence than these, the wire-worms, which always infest old grass land, more completely destroyed. Many thousand plants I had the misfortune to lose from the depredations of this insect only; and it will be found, that even rats, mice, and moles, are not so much to be dreaded as these pernicious creatures.

“Thirdly.—I would recommend every one, if they can, to sow liberally (I do not mean a large quantity of seed upon a small piece of ground, but the contrary); and as it is impossible to foretell what devastation may happen, from an unusually wet or severe winter, or any other cause, never let a season be omitted, lest a supply should fail, and a succession be lost.

“Provided the weather is open, the best period is the latter end of February, or the beginning of March, for this purpose; and if the seed should not vegetate in three weeks, let the sowings be repeated till they do. In cold soils a moderate hot-bed will be sometimes required, but very seldom, and ought never to be used but when absolutely necessary; for those plants will be found the strongest that are raised in the open ground. I prefer sowing in the broad-cast method, rather than in drills.

“Fourthly.—The nursery-bed to which the plants are to be transferred when at their proper size, and

and which comes next to be mentioned, must be diligently attended to. If any one should ever consult this paper with the hope of information, let me assure the inquirer that more depends upon this circumstance than at first may be imagined; for, strange as it may seem, it is no less so than true, the future success of a plant may be dated from its improvement in the nursery-bed: hence the pains we bestow upon them by constant waterings (for now they can scarcely have too much, if the weather is warm), and protecting them from the ravages of slugs and other insects, in their present stage, will be amply repaid us. I have known roots that have thriven well now, arrive in three years to an equal size with others that have not succeeded so well at the end of five. On this account, taking it for granted that the preceding hint respecting the dimensions of the seed-bed will be attended to, and as a great many will occupy but a small space, being no more than six or eight inches apart, I recommend every one likewise to plant as freely as they can; and, whenever a plantation is to be formed, or a vacancy filled up, to be sure that the finest and most thrifty plants are selected. I never recollect a single instance of a plant succeeding when it had lost its principal bud.

“Fifthly. Where a plantation does not possess the natural advantage of being on a declivity, narrower beds, and deepened trenches, are among the artificial means that should be adopted; but all situations will require a greater or less proportion of care, to prevent the ill effects of water remaining on the crowns of the plants; therefore, when the seed-stalks are cut off,

which ought always to be done immediately upon the withering of the radical leaves, they should be covered with mould, in the form of an hillock. This process will answer two good purposes, that of throwing off the rains, and the trenches, by supplying the material, will always be kept well open.

“Sixthly.—To obtain good merchantable rhubarb, at every opportunity I have spared no pains to enforce the absolute necessity of age, to discover the cause of its so frequent failure in its progress towards it, and to point out the means of prevention. That the former is an essential will appear the more clearly, when I add, that till the plants have blown, their medical virtues scarcely come into existence; and the latter will appear equally essential, when I further add, that at the same period the danger of decay commences likewise. Whoever attentively examines the growth of these roots, will perceive that their buds possess the double capacity, of serving first as their natural defence, and afterwards even assisting in their destruction. When one or more of these buds have bloomed, a cavity is formed in the centre of the plant, surrounded by the rest, into which the rain, if permitted, will make a lodgement, to the inevitable destruction of those parts that, on this account, year after year, become unprotected.

“Those portions of the crown whence the seed-stalks arise, prove ever the most valuable; and every succeeding year producing other seed-stalks, would add to the stock of useful root, if experience did not tell us, that hitherto the latter have increased no faster than the former have been diminished. Thus I

have seen much surprize expressed in letters transmitted to the Society upon this subject, that upon taking up roots of seven or more years old the greatest quantity should be good for nothing; and as the cause has never been reflected on, the only remedy the authors have ventured to recommend, is a more early removal, not being aware that this measure is at once destructive of all the beneficial consequences of age.

“ Lastly.—Notwithstanding our utmost care, it must not be expected that success will attend us in every instance; for this reason, every spring and autumn the plants should undergo a general examination. The young ones will presently discover their real situation, for either their leaves will wither as fast as they are produced, or their growth will become stunted. but with regard to the older ones, or those that have blown, as in most cases there will be found enough found root to produce a very luxuriant foliage, their state can only be discovered by pressing a finger into the centre of the crown; the least unsoundness will soon be perceptible by this means.

“ In both these cases I recommend the removal of the plants, and the vacancies occupied with others; for in the former much time will be saved, and the bad situation of the latter, by remaining, will only be aggravated, while it furnishes the cultivator with an opportunity of examining into the occasion of the several defects, and may lead to future prevention.

“ Thus, Sir, I have said for the present, in a general way, every thing very material that the subject suggests: should any one be desirous of more particular information, I beg leave to refer him to the

volumes of the Society's Transactions. A system of culture is recommended in that of last year, I hope not the less effective for being simple; and although its description may be thought rather prolix by the general reader, yet perhaps not unnecessarily so by the inquisitive.

“ It therefore only remains for me to add a few words respecting my own plantation. The accompanying certificate, which I trust is perfectly regular, will inform the society, that in the year 1797 I have added 3040 to my former number, making an aggregate of nearly 5000 plants. The method I pursued was exactly that already referred to; and after this second and more extensive trial I confess myself unable to propose a better.

“ With this you will likewise receive a small quantity of cured rhubarb, being a part of the produce of my plantation, commenced under the auspices of the society in the year 1792; and I believe, considering its age, it equals any they may hitherto have seen. My only motive for this, is a desire to offer some kind of proof in support of my pretensions to perseverance. I hope I may be permitted to send for it again, as it is all I have left, without a possibility of obtaining more till the next season.

“ In conclusion, Sir, I can only repeat my former sentiments, that the approbation of a society, whose every object is for this public advantage, must reflect credit upon every individual who is fortunate enough to be so distinguished. I have been so happy; and I take the opportunity to say, that this circumstance I shall consider, to the latest period of my life, as honourable in the greatest degree; at
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the same time I flatter myself the society will do me the justice to believe, that each repeated instance of their favour I esteem as so many obligations to further and more important exertions. To yourself, Sir, I feel myself indebted for much politeness and attention on all occasions: I hope you will accept

my warmest acknowledgments, and the assurance that

"I remain

"your much obliged

"and very humble servant,

"THOMAS JONES."

Mr. MORE, *Fish-street-hill,*

February 13, 1798.

MANNER OF REARING and TREATING SILKWORMS in the Northern Parts of EUROPE, described in a LETTER from M. SIEVERS, of BAUENHOFF, in LIVONIA, to MR. MORE.

[From the same Work.]

"SIR,

"THE principle that induced me to trouble you with this letter, will, I hope, serve for an apology, and gain your indulgence.

"Not till late in this autumn the thirteen volumes of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, came to my hands. I perused them with so much the more pleasure, as I remember, while in England, in my younger years, the first existence and sudden rise of this useful society, by the public spirit of Mr. Shipley, whose name was ever since respectable to me.

"I dare not intrude on your time, so usefully employed for the public good of your country, to expatiate on the many articles I most admired, but especially the encouragement of plantations, by which the society will be the benefactor of ages to come: yet one article struck me, for its not answering the expectations and repeated laudable exertions of the society; I mean, the cultivation of silk and the mulberry-tree, an object so worthy the society's attention.

"I will venture to justify the trouble I am going to give you, sir, by this long letter, in saying something which may appear of some use on that score. You will smile to hear a man living under the 58th degree of latitude, and so much to the east as beyond the Baltic, speak of the cultivation of the mulberry-tree and rearing of silkworms; yet I hope to win your indulgence, perhaps your candid approbation of some of my thoughts. Many thousands of English nobility and gentry travelled, rambled, even lived in Italy and the South of France; numbers of them I have seen and known there; but none cared to inquire about the silkworm, and its prodigious work: amusements chiefly took up their time; of a few, antiquities, statues, paintings, of which, be it said to their honour, no nation has made so rich a harvest on the hungry Italians, preying on the wealth of the English travellers.

"But to come to the silkworms, —While I served, in the year 1758, in the Russian army, in Pomerania,

particularly near the coast of the Baltic, I had the good luck, being quarter-master general of a division, to share a considerable corn field of a gentleman; this produced an acquaintance with the owner: having seen there many plantations of mulberry-trees, of both sorts, he told me their use, and shewed me their produce. I requested some seeds of both, and the model of a spinning-wheel.

"Some of the seeds were sown at a villa near St. Petersburg, belonging to an uncle of mine; they always froze to the earth; yet in the following years would rise as high as three or four feet, in several branches, and give, with a few larger trees in the green-house, food for three thousand silkworms, which gave near a pound of silk. But this essay had no followers, and is now no more.

"Another part of the Pomeranian seed was sown next spring at my then living father's estate, where I now live, in Livonia, about eighty-five English miles north of Riga. The frosts took always half of the year's growth. They were planted in a couple of borders, and kept under the sheers, then much in use, as formerly in England. No use was made of the leaves. When I retired from public life, I found no more than forty-five trees, or rather bushes, standing in one row, two feet asunder; I transplanted every second or third tree, by which I lost three trees: I made sucklings, and have more than a hundred low standard trees by them; cuttings I never attempted, misled by a German author, who assured me they would not take.

"I wrote for some seeds from Berlin, of the white mulberry, of which I had many thousand plants;

being no botanist, I am not sure they are of the white, though they have leaves much more smooth and tender than my old trees.

"The seedlings rose a foot in the first year, but froze to the ground; the next they rose to two feet, of which more than a foot was lost by the next winter; so they did the third year: then I transplanted them, partly in rows in beds, one foot asunder, others in sundry places of light middling land. I gave many hundreds to several ladies, who hearing of my silkworms, were curious to have the plants. A lady near the town of Dorpat, near a hundred miles to the north-east, rears already a couple of thousand silkworms, and has a shawl embroidered with her own silk of natural colours. Those planted in rows and beds were, after two years, planted for good, in different places, even in the field; of these, having no shelter, some have suffered more than those which were protected by buildings or other trees.

"I made no use of my mulberry-leaves till five years ago. Travelling in White Russia, or to be more explicit, in the Government of Polotzk, on the borders of the river Duna, about one hundred and fifty miles to the east of Riga, consequently somewhat colder, I found some ladies reeling cocoons, having, as they said, no spinning-wheel; the cocoons were spun there the same summer. The mother of these ladies being from the southern borders of former Poland, had brought young mulberry-trees from thence, which I saw thrive very well, being standard trees of above fifteen feet high, and, near the ground, of about three inches thick.

"They gave me a sheet of paper

per with some eggs: the next year I had near three thousand worms spinning. A German pamphlet from Berlin served me for instruction, and to make a spinning-wheel, for my Pomeranian model was lost. I had such a great call for cocoons, that, instead of near a pound, which I might probably have had, I got but ten ounces of silk, taking eight or nine cocoons to a thread. I sent some of the silk to her Imperial Majesty, of glorious memory, she being a great promoter of all sorts of industry. I received a most gracious letter of thanks from her hand: I sent likewise some silk to the Society of Economy at Petersburg, whose president, count Anhalt, wrote to me a letter of thanks and approbation. For myself, I got a pair of knitted white silk stockings, having no loom for weaving in this neighbourhood.

"The two following years about the same number were reared, though more might have been so. The sucklings of my old trees transplanted beginning to give a pretty deal of leaves, this year I expected to have had eight thousand; but being obliged to make a journey in the beginning of May to the southern parts of Russia, beyond Kiovia, which journey took up the whole summer, the young lady I entrusted with rearing my silkworms, full of eagerness to the purpose, exposed the sheets with the eggs to the sun too soon: when the leaves had scarce begun to break, overjoyed at the prodigious number that crept out, she forgot my prescription, counted more than sixteen thousand at the third skinning; but the trees were then almost bare of leaves; she could not resolve to throw one half away, to save the other; so most of the poor animalcula died,

and scarce two thousand remained, which gave much smaller cocoons than in the former years. I am even in danger of losing my old trees, for they seem weakened by being stripped too much. Most of my old trees, which are rather bushes of about six, seven, or eight feet, branching from the ground, are of the black sort, bearing very small fruit, much smaller than in England: but those I take to be white ones do not bear any. I still take them to be such, because they suffer somewhat more by the frosts, and the little creatures eat their leaves more eagerly than from the others.

"No insects I ever remarked on either: the Reverend Mr. Swayne's remarking some earwigs, is a phenomenon I never heard of in Italy, nor this summer at Kiovia, nor found it in any book.

"From these premises, sir, methinks we may venture to draw the following outlines of what might be proper to come nearer to the useful and extensive aim of the society.

"I. That the white mulberry-tree is the only one that will produce silk. The quotation, page 191, in your tenth volume, of Mr. Hanway's Travels, a man of known veracity, I can assure to be true, by what I have heard of a gentleman who lived many years at Astrachan, and had connexions with the Armenians, who are the principal traders with Persia and Persian silk, an article increasing yearly, for the use of the manufactures at Moscow. The Persian silkworms, as those in Italy and the south of France, feed most certainly on the white mulberry leaves alone. This is confirmed by the ingenious and indefatigable Mr. Arthur Young, in his Travels in the South of France and Lombardy, as

quoted by Mr. Swayne, which I have read in his works; and Mr. Bertezen affirms the same; while what he gives as his own opinion is evidently fallacious, if not set forward on purpose to mislead. No doubt the worms will live on the black, but will not thrive, nor give any other but indifferent silk. I therefore think, that for a complete establishment and producing silk, this being the laudable aim of the society, the white mulberry alone should be raised, using the black, existing of old in England for its fruit, only as a necessitous nourishment, degrading the quality and value of the silk. As a further proof I must add, that the Organzine silk, the best Europe produces, owes its excellence to the particular kind of white mulberry-trees, of which the branches are grafted on those raised from seed. I remember to have heard, and even read somewhere, that they get, by way of smuggling, the branches to France, to graft the trees in Provence, Dauphiné, and Languedoc: premiums will bring them as certainly to England.

“ II. That the white mulberry-tree will thrive most certainly in England and Wales, and even in Scotland as far as Edinburgh, as a middling standard-tree. The black and the white will do, though this less flourishingly, as far as the most northern coasts of Scotland, perhaps not as a standard-tree, but certainly as a large bushy shrub, as my old trees are here. My trees, from sucklings and seeds, are trained as small standard-trees, the stem or trunk only four or three feet. To judge by the latitude, the white mulberry will thrive in Ireland as well as in England; but the seeds should not be taken from France nor Italy, nor any warmer climate. I would propose to get them by Stet-

ten from Pomerania, and from Berlin; nay, I have been assured some may be had from Königsberg in Prussia: care must be taken to distinguish the two sorts. The white one may be got too from Dresden and Leipzig: the seed of the black in England will do for the northern parts of England; but for Scotland I should rather obtain them from Pomerania and Prussia.

“ III. That the seeds should be sown in plain but light garden-land, rather somewhat sandy, without any dung whatever. The Rev. Mr. Swayne, in your tenth volume, guesses right when he attributes the loss of his plants to the dung.

“ IV. That I doubt the mode of cuttings to multiply the mulberry-tree. I will make, next spring, a trial in land, and in a green-house without heat; yet I think it a mistake: but from seeds, the aim being universal, it seems more eligible, especially if taken from a northern climate, as proposed above.

“ V. That, to all those that will undertake to raise silkworms, an excessive cleanliness should be recommended: no draught of air, no smoke, qualm, damp vapour, or exhalation whatever, should come near them; no sickly person approach them.

“ VI. That no sun-shine, but only a temperate or broken light, should come upon them; the heat of the room should be between twelve and fifteen of Réaumur: airing more than once, especially in the morning, is necessary. The room should have shutters, to secure them from the effect of thunder and lightning; consequently the bringing them into the air, as proposed by the Rev. Mr. Swayne, I dare not adopt; besides, the carrying the apparatus into the garden, and back into the house, is an

unnecessary labour, requiring hands. The apparatus is really a good one, resembling some I have seen formerly in Italy, and this last summer beyond Kiovia, at two estates of field-marshal count Rasoumouzky, who has mulberry plantations, and got this summer about twenty pounds of pretty good silk.

“ VII. That the rearing of silkworms will take no labourer from the field, nor from any manufacture: it will employ only an elderly woman and a couple of children, of twelve, thirteen, or fourteen years of age, the gathering of the leaves excepted, which will employ one lad of fifteen; all these will rear thirty thousand worms, or more, in the term of six or seven weeks, producing ten pounds of silk.

“ VIII. That for the mulberry-tree no good land is required, but such as will grow the most common trees on dry land; nay, I will venture to assert, they will grow on Blackheath, on Hounslow-heath, on Finchley-common, and even on the barren Marlborough-downs. To these hints I must add, for the further encouragement of industry, that I found, this summer, at Kiovia, a poor tailor, a native of Upper Silesia, who having a small house over against the mulberry-garden planted by Peter the Great, and having seen the rearing of silkworms in his native country, began three years ago to rear some with the leaves of that garden. Last year he delivered twenty-five pounds of silk to the director of the imperial garden there, who paid him, by order of the empress, ten rubles a pound. I visited him as a man of desert: I found his house, about twenty feet square, partitioned into four small rooms; in the corner of one of these I

found a dozen sacks, of about three bushels each, filled with as large and fine cocoons as I have seen in Italy, and much finer than my own; of these this industrious man hoped to get thirty pounds of silk. Except the men and boys he employed to gather the leaves, he had for his work to take care of his worms, whose number he rated to be near a hundred thousand, no more help than his wife, an elderly woman, and three children, of twelve, thirteen, and fourteen years of age.

“ As another proof how encouragement raised industry in a similar object, I must add, that in the Prussian dominions mulberry-trees were planted by order of Frederick William, father to Frederick II. A few hundreds of pounds of silk were made yearly. This last king neglected the object in the first twelve years of his reign; the years 1750, 1751, and 1752, produced together no more than one hundred and fifty pounds. Count Hertzberg got the care of it. Though taken up with ministerial affairs, he found the object so interesting, encouraged the same with such zeal, gave even medals out of his own pocket, that an incredible augmentation ensued. In the year 1794, when he died, fourteen thousand pounds of silk were delivered into the Berlin manufacture, proved to be Prussian silk. Great Britain and Ireland would outdo them very soon, if steps were taken to procure mulberry seeds and plantations, and that the known public spirit of the nation would turn its attention to that object, and make it a national one.

“ As a third and last proof, permit me, sir, to add, that the late empress, hearing that some mulberry-trees, planted by Peter the Great,

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on an island in the Wolga, near Czaritzin, were grown to a great height, and augmented by nature, the placed there a colony of Russians; to the number of four hundred males (the place called Ach-touba); gave them ten years exemption from imposts, after which they were to pay their capitation and imposts in silk, at ten rubles per pound. The first ribbon of the newly instituted military order of St. George was of that produce; and though the same was coarse, she said, smiling, she never wore a finer to her mind. From the silkworms' produce, give me leave, sir, to say a few words of a plant which seems to be a-kin to them; it is the *Aple-pias Syriaca*, mentioned in Miller's, Mawe's, and Abercrombie's dictionaries, as a perennial plant in England: I found it this summer in an apothecary's garden in Kiowia: was surprised to find its produce so much resembling the silk; and that in Upper Silesia manufacturers exist that cultivate this plant, and spinning its sort of silk with cotton, produce a silky stuff. According to a calculation I have seen, half an acre will produce, in the third year, the value of ninety rix-dollars, and so on. Here I should conclude; but, with a heart full of grateful feelings to a happy country, where I passed seven of my younger years, being attached to the Russian embassy, I must ask you a few questions, that may perhaps prove not unworthy the attention of your truly patriotic society.

"Is the *Pinus Cembra*, or Siberian mountain pine, or Siberian cedar, known to you? It is a very fine tree in appearance, and very valuable by its fruit and timber; I find it both in Miller's, Mawe's, and Abercrombie's dictionaries;

and methinks I have seen it at Chel-sea, under the name of a cedar. The fruit grows in their pine-apples, in numerous small sweet kernels: it is offered as a delicacy in every citizen's house in Russia; but those kernels will not do for vegetation, because they are dried in the oven to get them out of the apple. This tree would be an excellent acquisition, for Scotland in general, and for the English parks in particular. Its needles are longer and darker than those of the famous Weymouth pine: its home is on the mountains that separate Siberia from Casan, or rather Europe from Asia.

"Is the Archangel larch-tree known to you? All the men of war built at Archangel are of that timber. I have some of eight years old in my garden that are fifteen feet high; the three last years they rose ten feet. I am curious to know from whence came the seeds of larch planted in England and in Scotland. I do not believe them at home in Scotland, because in Russia, in the government of Olou, formerly of Noogrod, the larch-tree begins to grow with the sixty-third degree of latitude: near Archangel, and on the borders of the White Sea, I have seen larch-trees that would serve for masts. Should the English plantations be from thence or America, or from the Alps?

"Why do not the Society offer a premium for the cultivation of the Weymouth pine in particular, that tree being in such repute for its speedy growth; furnishing even masts to the navy? Why not for several timber and walnut trees, especially the black with round, and the other with the oblong fruit? Why not for a number of other American trees and underwood, especially

cially the *Pseudo-Aca*, so renowned in Germany for its rapid growth as such?

"All these are well known in England, as I see by lists of the gardeners who sell plants; I know them by three classical works in German; one published at Göttingen, 1789, by Mr. Wangenheim, who served as captain in the Hanoverian troops all the American war; the other, of the late professor Du Roy, who directed for many years the extensive and successful plantations of Mr. Veltheim, between Brurvis and Magdeburg; third, of Mr. Burgsdorff, at Berlin, who has extensive plantations near that town, and carries on a great trade with American and German seeds. These works would be worth your perusal, if you are acquainted with the German language.

"To compensate with something the perhaps too tedious length of this letter, I must tell you, sir, how the public spirit of your respectful society turned to the advantage of a distant nation. The society's spirited exertions, and

published premiums, gave the first idea and rise to the Free Economical Society at St. Petersburg, instituted in the year 1766. The late empress, reading the English news-papers, bid one to explain to her many of the society's premiums, with which she was so much pleased, that soon after a society of fifteen distinguished persons united, with her approbation, who chose soon after many members more, of whom I had the honour to be of the first, being then governor of Great Noogrod. The society exists, and has promoted many very useful objects; but not being in such affluent circumstances, by the aid of the public, their exertions fall short of those of the English society.

"This letter proves the due regard with which I am,

"SIR,

"Your most obedient servant,
"J. SIEVERS."

SAMUEL MORE, Esq.
*Secretary to the Society for the
Encouragement of Arts, Manu-
factures, and Commerce,
at London.*

EASY METHOD OF CLEANING and BLEACHING COPPER-PLATE IMPRESSIONS OF PRINTS.

[Extracted from a LETTER of Sig. GIO. FAEBRONI, SUBDIRECTOR and SUPERINTENDANT of the ROYAL CABINET of PHILOSOPHY and NATURAL HISTORY of his ROYAL HIGHNESS the GRAND DUKE of TUSCANY, to Sig. LUIGI TARGIONI, at NAPLES, and inserted in the second Volume of Mr. NICHOLSON'S JOURNAL of NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, CHEMISTRY, and the ARTS.]

"SINCE the happy invention of engraving in copper, which no doubt owes its origin to the revival of the art of chasing and ornamenting plate, collectors have availed themselves of this means

means to accumulate and preserve copies of the most valuable pictures and drawings. This object of research becomes every day more prevalent, and prints of the early and most celebrated masters are now sought for with the utmost avidity.

"Ancient prints are valuable, not only for their own intrinsic merits, but as monuments of the history of the art. But their scarcity renders them still more valuable. Most of those which are still extant are defaced by negligence, during the time of their remaining suspended against walls exposed to smoke, vapour, and the excrements of insects. Collectors of prints have not, however, shewn the same partiality as antiquarians for the patina; but on the contrary they have sought and practised a method of clearing prints from these impurities.

"This method consists in simple washing with clear water, or a ley made of the ashes of vine stalks or reeds, and lastly by a long exposure to the dew. Aqua fortis is also used for the same purpose, but with a degree of risque at least equal to its advantages. The ley dissolves not only the impurities but likewise the oil of the printing ink, and either discharges it totally, or leaves a cloudy appearance. The aqua fortis acts on the vegetable fibre, of which the paper itself is composed, and produces a dark colour, which cannot be removed by means of this liquid, but by an action which would considerably injure the paper itself.

"The discovery of Priestley, of the fluid erroneously named by him, but since known by the name of oxygen; and the information we have obtained from Scheele, of the effects of its combination with muriatic acid, have led Berthollet to

the useful application of its properties to the art of bleaching cloths, Chaptal to that of bleaching prints and books, and Giobert to the art of painting. But the method of making this preparation is too inconvenient for a mere amateur and collector of prints, and the oxygenated muriatic acid is not yet to be purchased ready prepared in Italy. It may not, therefore, be unacceptable to describe an easy method of effecting this purpose without the difficulties of chemical processes, and within the ability of any person to perform.

"It is known that oxygen is abundantly contained in the combinations called metallic calces, though in a state of inactivity; and it is equally well ascertained, that these substances have a very strong attraction for it. On the other hand it is a fact, that some of the metallic calces of very moderate price are capable of easily yielding the whole or the greatest proportion of this constituent part. Manganes is not very well adapted for this purpose; but minium is much better. Nothing more is required to be done, but to provide a certain quantity of the common muriatic acid, for example, three ounces, in a glass bottle, with a ground stopper, of such a capacity that it may be only half full. Half an ounce of minium must then be added; immediately after which the stopper is to be put in, and the bottle set in a cold and dark place. The heat, which soon becomes perceptible, shews the beginning of the new combination. The minium abandons the greatest part of its oxygen with which the fluid remains impregnated, at the same time that it acquires a fine golden yellow, and emits the detestable smell of oxygenated muriatic acid. It contains a small

a small portion of muriate of lead; but this is not at all noxious in the subsequent process. It is also necessary to be observed, that the bottle must be strong, and the stopper not too firmly fixed, otherwise the active elastic vapor might burst it. The method of using this prepared acid is as follows:

“Provide a sufficiently large plate of glass, upon which one or more prints may be separately spread out. Near the edges let there be raised a border of soft white wax half an inch high, adhering well to the glass, and flat at top. In this kind of trough the print is to be placed in a bath of fresh urine, or water containing a small quantity of ox gall, and kept in this situation for three or four hours. The fluid is then to be decanted off, and pure warm water poured on, which must be changed every three or four hours until it passes limpid and clear. The impurities are sometimes of a resinous nature, and resist the action of pure water. When this is the case the washed print must be left to

dry, and alcohol is then to be poured on and left for a time. After the print is thus cleaned, and all the moisture drained off, the muriatic acid prepared with minimum * is to be poured on in sufficient quantity to cover the print; immediately after which another plate of glass is to be laid in contact with the rim of wax, in order to prevent the inconvenient exhalation of the oxygenated acid. In this situation the yellowest print will be seen to recover its original whiteness in a very short time. One or two hours are sufficient to produce the desired effect; but the print will receive no injury if it be left in the acid for a whole night. Nothing more is necessary to complete the work, than to decant off the remaining acid, and wash away every trace of acidity by repeated affusions of pure water. The print being then left to dry (in the sun if possible) will be found white, clear, firm, and in no respect damaged either in the texture of the paper or the tone and appearance of the impression.”

USEFUL ECONOMICAL INFORMATION.

[Selected from ETON'S SURVEY of the TURKISH EMPIRE.]

“COTTON at Smyrna is dyed with madder in the following manner:—The cotton is boiled in mild alkali, and then in common olive oil; being cleaned, it will then take the madder dye: and

this is the fine colour we see in Smyrna cotton-yarn. I have heard five thousand pounds was given, in England, for this secret.”

“I have seen practised a method of filtering water by ascension, which

* As I have not repeated this process, I cannot estimate how far the presence of the lead may weaken the corrosive action of the acid on the paper; but I should be disposed to recommend a previous dilution of the acid with water. Whoever uses this process will of course make himself master of the proportion of water required to dilute the acid, by making his first trials with an old print of no value. N.

is much superior to our filtering stones, or other methods by descent, in which, in time, particles of the stone, or the finer sand, make a passage along with the water.

" They make two wells, from five to ten feet, or any depth, at a small distance, which have a communication at bottom. The separation must be of clay well beaten, or of other substances impervious to water. The two wells are then filled with sand and gravel. The opening of that into which the water to be filtered is to run, must be somewhat higher than that into which the water is to ascend, and this must not have sand quite up to its brim, that there may be room for the filtered water, or it may, by a spout, run into a vessel placed for that purpose. The greater the difference is between the height of the two wells, the faster the water will filter; but the less it is the better, provided a sufficient quantity of water be supplied by it.

" This may be practised in a cask, tub, jar, or other vessel. The water may be conveyed to the bottom by a pipe, the lower end having a sponge in it, or the pipe may be filled with coarse sand.

" It is evident that all such particles, which by their gravity are carried down in filtration by descent, will not rise with the water in filtration by ascension. This might be practised on board ships at little expence.

" The Arabians and the Turks have a preparation of milk, which has similar qualities to the kumiss* of the Kalmuks: by the first it is called *leban*, by the Turks *yaourt*.

" To make it, they put to new milk made hot over the fire some old *leban* (or *yaourt*). In a few hours, more or less, according to the temperature of the air, it becomes curdled of an uniform consistence, and a most pleasant acid; the cream is in great part separated, leaving the curd light and semitransparent. The whey is much less subject to separate than in curds made with rennet with us, for the purpose of making cheese.

" *Yaourt* has this singular quality, that left to stand it becomes daily sourer, and at last dries, without having entered into the putrid fermentation. In this state it is preserved in bags, and in appearance resembles pressed curds after they have been broken by the hand. This dry *yaourt*, mixed with water, becomes a fine cooling food or drink, of excellent service in fevers of the inflammatory or putrid kind. It seems to have none of those qualities which make milk improper in fevers. Fresh *yaourt* is a great article of food among the natives, and Europeans soon become fond of it.

" No other acid will make the same kind of curd: all that have been tried, after the acid fermentation is over, become putrid. In Russia they put their milk in pots in an oven, and let it stand till it becomes sour, and this they use as an article of food in that state, or make cheese of it, but it has none of the qualities of *yaourt*, though, when it is new, it has much of the taste. Perhaps new milk curdled with sour milk, and that again used as a ferment, and the same process continued, might, in time, acquire the qualities of *yaourt*,

* For the method of preparing kumiss, or kourmish, with its use in medicine, see the *New Annual Register* for the year 1788, p. [133.]

which

which never can be made in Turkey without some old yaourt.

"They give no rational account how it was first made; some of them told me an angel taught Abraham how to make it, and others, that an angel brought a pot of it to Hagar, which was the first yaourt (or leban).

"It merits attention as a delicious article of food, and as a medicine."

"The butter, which is mostly used in Constantinople, comes from the Crim and the Kuban. They do not salt it, but melt it in large copper pans over a very slow fire, and scum off what rises; it will then preserve sweet a long time if the butter was fresh when it was melted. We preserve butter mostly by salting. I have had butter, which when fresh was melted and skimmed in the Tartar manner, and then salted in our manner, which kept two years good and fine tasted. Washing does not so effectually free butter from the curd and buttermilk, which it is necessary to do, in order to preserve it, as boiling or melting; when then salt is added to prevent the pure butyrous part from growing rancid, we certainly have the best process for preserving butter. The melting or boiling, if done with care, does not discolour or injure the taste.

"To the lovers of coffee, a few remarks on the Turkish manner of making it, in the best way, may not be unacceptable.

"Coffee, to be good, must either be ground to an almost impalpable powder, or it must be pounded as the Turks do, in an iron mortar, with a heavy pestle. The Turks first put the coffee dry into the coffee-pot, and set it over a very slow fire, or embers, till it is warm, and sends forth a fragrant

smell, shaking it often; then from another pot they pour on it boiling water (or rather water in which the grounds of the last made coffee had been boiled, and set to become clear); they then hold it a little longer over the fire, till there is on its top a white froth like cream, but it must not boil, but only rise gently; it is then poured backwards and forwards two or three times, from one pot into another, and it soon becomes clear; they, however, often drink it quite thick. Some put in a spoonfull of cold water to make it clear sooner, or lay a cloth dipt in cold water on the top of the pot.

"The reason why our West India coffee is not so good as the Yemen coffee is, that on account of the climate it is never suffered to hang on the trees till it is perfectly ripe; and in the voyage it acquires a taste from the bad air in the hold of the ship. This may be remedied in Italy, by exposing it to the sun two or three months: with us, boiling water should be poured on it, and let to stand till it is cold, then it must be washed with other cold water, and, lastly, dried in an oven. Thus prepared, it will be nearly as good as the best Turkey coffee. It should be roasted in an open earthen or iron pan, and the slower it is roasted the better. As often as it crackles it must be taken off the fire. The Turks often roast in a baker's oven while it is heating.

"The preservation of yeast having been a subject of much research in this country, the following particulars may perhaps deserve attention. On the coast of Persia my bread was made, in the English manner, of good wheat flower, and with the yeast generally used there. It is thus prepared: take a small tea-

tea-cup or wine-glass full of split or bruised pease, pour on it a pint of boiling water, and set the whole in a vessel all night on the hearth, or any other warm place; the water will have a froth on its top next morning, and will be good yeast.

In this cold climate, especially at a cold season, it should stand longer to ferment, perhaps twenty-four or forty-eight hours. The above quantity made me as much bread as two sixpenny loaves, the quality of which was very good and light."

POETRY.

ODE for the NEW YEAR.

By HENRY JAMES PYE, ESQ. POET LAUREAT.

I.

WHEN genial Zephyr's balmy wing
Fans with soft plume the flowery vale,
Each tender scion of the spring
Expanding owns the fostering gale,
And smiles each sunny glade around,
With vegetable beauty crown'd ;
But when the whirlwinds of the north
Burst in tempestuous vengeance forth,
Before the thunder of the storm
Each spreading tree of weaker form
Or bends to earth, or lies reclin'd,
Torn by the fury of the wind ;
Then proudly 'mid the quivering shade
Stands the firm oak in native strength array'd,
Waves high his giant branches, and defies
The elemental war that rends the skies.

II.

Deep-rooted in this kindred soil,
So Freedom here through many an age
Has mock'd Ambition's fruitless toil,
And Treason's wiles, and Faction's rage ;
And as the stormy ruin pass'd
Which Anarchy's rude breath had blown,
While Europe, bending to the blast,
Beholds her fairest realms o'erthrown ;
Alone Britannia's happy isle,
Bless'd by a patriot Monarch's smile,
Amid surrounding storms uninjur'd stands,
Nor dreads the tempest's force that wastes her neighbour lands.

III.

But see! along the darkling main
 The gathering clouds malignant pour,
 And, spreading o'er our blue domain,
 Against our shores their thunders pour;
 While treach'rous friends and daring foes
 Around in horrid compact close;—
 Their swarming barks portentous shade
 With crowded sails the watery glade;
 When lo! imperial GEORGE commands—
 Rush to the waves Britannia's veteran bands—
 Unnumber'd hosts usurp in vain
 Dominion o'er his briny reign;
 His fleets their monarch's right proclaim
 With brazen throat, with breath of flame:
 And captive in his ports their squadrons ride,
 Or mourn their shatter'd wrecks deep whelm'd beneath the
 tide.

IV.

From shore to shore, from pole to pole,
 Where'er wide Ocean's billows roll,
 From holy Ganges' tepid wave
 To seas that isles Atlantic lave;
 From hoary Greenland's frozen lands
 To burning Libya's golden sands,
 Aloft the British ensign flies
 In folds triumphant to the skies;
 While to the notes that hail'd the isle
 Emerging from its parent main,
 The sacred Muse with raptur'd smile
 Responsive pours the exulting strain—
 "Rule, Britannia! rule the waves,
 "Britons never will be slaves."

The STORM, an ODE.

[From Dr. DRAKE'S LITERARY HOURS.]

HEARD ye the whirlwind's flight sublime,
 Swift as the rushing wing of Time?
 The Dæmon rag'd aloud!
 Vaunting he rear'd his giant form,
 And tower'd amid the gathering storm,

Borne on a murky cloud;
 Vast horror shook the dome of heav'n,
 As 'neath him far with fury driv'n,
 The viewless depths of air,
 Stern o'er the struggling globe he past,
 While pausing Nature shrank aghast,
 And thro' the troubled gloom wild yell'd the fiend Despair.

Servant of God! destructive power!
 Whilst due to wrath the direful hour,
 Thou warn'st a guilty world,
 When bursts to vengeance heav'n's blest fire,
 When lightens fierce the Almighty's ire,
 On sin-struck nations hurl'd;
 Thy terrors load my trembling shell,
 Dread as the madd'ning tones that swell
 O'er yonder bleak domain,
 Where heaves thy deep, incessant roar,
 That shakes the snow-topt mountain hoar,
 And with resistless ruin strews th' affrighted plain.

Ah! what of hope's delicious ray,
 As slow the pilgrim takes his way,
 Shall sooth his sinking soul,
 As round him forms infernal rise,
 Of ghastly hue, whose hideous cries
 Thro' the vast æther roll,
 And mingling in each surf-worn cave,
 Fell spirits from the murderer's grave
 The deed of horror hail?
 Saw ye the redd'ning meteor gleam?
 Heard ye, with harsh and hollow scream,
 Far o'er the dim cold sea the birds of ocean wail?

Fierce o'er the darkly-heaving waves,
 The storm with boundless fury raves,
 The sailor starts aghast,
 His helm, to ruthless vengeance giv'n,
 O'er the vast surge speeds idly driv'n,
 As shrieks the hurrying blast:
 Cease, Emma, cease to hope in vain,
 Thou ne'er wilt view thy lord again,
 He never shall return!
 Pale on the desert shore he lies!
 No wife belov'd to close his eyes,
 No friend in pitying tones his wave-drench'd limbs to mourn!

Hark! how the rough winds madd'ning sweep
 Bare the broad earth, and drifting deep,

The boreal deluge raise!
 Here mountains shoot their wreath-tipt heads,
 Here lo! far sunk, the valley spreads
 Her drear, her wild'ring maze!
 O come, let's brave the northern blast,
 Let's mark stupendous nature cast
 In many a form sublime.
 I care not if, where Hecla towers,
 Where wrapt in tempests winter lowers
 Stern on her ice-clad throne, I trace the hoary clime.

Protect me heav'n! 'neath yon huge drift,
 Where to the clouds the wild winds lift
 The waste in horror pil'd,
 See, where yon shiv'ring female lies!
 Lo! on her fainting bosom dies
 Cold, cold, her infant child!
 Daughter of woe! then doubly dear!
 O'er thy sad fate how many a tear
 The hapless mother shed!
 And must we, cried she, must we part?
 Then clasp'd thee to her shudd'ring heart,
 Whilst in convulsive sighs thy little spirit fled.

O thou, who rul'st the fleeting year,
 Who giv'st to roll the varied sphere
 Amid the vast of heav'n,
 Now, Father, bend thine awful ear!
 O blest me with a parent's care,
 To thy protection giv'n;
 Whether on ocean's bosom thrown,
 Or plung'd where snow-clad mountains frown,
 If thou my hallow'd guide,
 I heed not, let the tempest roar,
 Let havoc and wild winter hoar,
 And terror's giant form the dark-brow'd whirlwind ride.

ADDRESS of the GLACIER GODDESS to Dr. DARWIN.

[From the second Volume of Miss WILLIAMS'S TOUR in SWITZERLAND.]

WHILE o'er the Alpine cliff I musing stray'd,
 And gaz'd on nature, in her charms severe,
 The last soft beam of parting day display'd
 The Glacier-Goddess, on her crystal sphere.

Her

Her fledgy-car, with sparkling frost-work bright,
 O'er the pellucid ice her snow-birds drew,
 And on her fleecy robe refracted light
 The full-blown rose's vermeil colours threw.

Slow as she graceful lifts her misty veil,
 Indignant grief her mournful glance exprest,
 And thus, in falt'ring tones, the vestal pale,
 Breath'd the deep sorrows of her beating breast.

" Native of that green isle, where Darwin waves
 " His magic wand o'er Nature's vernal reign,
 " Her airy essence, and her central caves,
 " Her fires electric, and her Nereid train.

" Go, tell him, stranger, had his muse explor'd
 " My realms, new marvels had enchained her eye;
 " Go, tell him, in my sunless fanes are stor'd
 " Treasures no vulgar glance shall e'er descry.

" Ye nymphs of fire! around your glowing brows
 " What lavish wreathes your poet loves to twine!
 " Know, partial bard! philosophy allows
 " That one bright chaplet might belong to mine.

" Ah, why a vestal to a 'fiend' transform,
 " Bid to my steeps thy glitt'ring bands repair,
 " Direct with cruel aim their arrowy storm,
 " And chain a goddess to the 'northern bear?'

" Stay thy rash steps! my potent hand impels
 " The rushing avalanche to gulphs below!
 " I can transfix thee numb'd, in icy cells,
 " Or shroud thee in unfathom'd folds of snow!

" Come not in hostile garb!—with softer art,
 " With dearer power, my yielding spirit seize,
 " Wake thy rich lyre, and melt my gelid heart
 " With incense sweeter than the western breeze.

" Thy muse shall mount my Lammer-Geyer's wing,
 " Pass o'er my untrod heights, with daring course,
 " While the cold genii of each new-born spring
 " For thee unlock the river's viewless source.

" For thee my sylphs, with tender care, shall mark
 " The printless pathway of the secret rills,
 " And light with lambent ray the caverns dark
 " Where chemic nature mystic wealth distills.

- " For thee my sylphs in distant lands shall trace,
 " Where, far diffused, my vivifying powers
 " Awake, ungrateful bard, in basking grace,
 " To life and love, awake thy wedded flowers.

 " For thee—but ah, my pensive form he flies
 " For nymphs of golden locks, and florid hue !
 " No charms have snow-white tints, or azure eyes."
 She wept, and, folded in a cloud, withdrew.

REFLECTIONS ON A VISIT to the Village of MALVERN and its MOUNTAINS.

[From MALVERN, a Poem, by LUKE BOOKER, LL. D.]

HAPPY, enchanting village ! if thou know'st
 Thy own true happiness.—What precious gifts
 Shower'd by indulgent Heaven,—what ample stores
 Do other regions boast, that are not thine ?
 Grateful, with Israel's seer, mayst thou exclaim,
 " How blest'd, how greatly blest'd, these favour'd scenes
 " With Nature's choicest bounty ! heaven's soft dew,
 " And yon wide rolling river, couching deep
 " Within its cavern'd banks ! how blest'd with fruits
 " Ripen'd by temperate suns and fed with showers
 " Sent by the Moon propitious ! O how blest'd
 " With treasures from the ancient mountains, high
 " Lifting their summits, and eternal hills,
 " Where fleecy rangers pasture, and whence flow
 " Streams, salutary streams, to bless mankind !"

As erst, from Pisgah's top, that holy seer
 The promis'd Canaan's fruitful plains survey'd,
 Look thou, inhabitant of Malvern ! round,
 Westward, or north, or south, or now where east
 Blazes with solar glory,—look and praise
 Nature's beneficent almighty Lord,
 Whose power a scene so beauteous could create,—
 Whose goodness made a scene so beauteous thine.

Ye mountains nobly prominent ! from far
 Seen by your poet,—daily seen with joy—
 Tho' vasty prospects—e'en to Cambria's hills,
 He boasts, and tho' his comprehensive view
 Be richly graced with Nature's rival charms,—
 Water, and wood, and hill, and many a fane
 With tower or spire,—you chiefly he admires,
 Sublimely rising like the giant-clouds
 Which eve assembles in the western sky,

When

'When day's bright monarch, curtain'd round with gold,
 His other hemisphere retires to blefs.
 As Athos o'er th' Ægean sea, I mark
 You, o'er the champaign, rear your shadowing form
 Irregularly huge, august, and high:
 Mass pil'd on mass, and rock on ponderous rock,
 In Alpine majesty,—your lofty brows
 Sometimes dark frowning, and anon serene,
 Wrapt now in clouds invisible, and now
 Glowing with golden sunshine: now mid-way
 Broad nebulous zone engirds you, like the belt
 Of that resplendent star whose mighty orb,
 Rolling thro' boundless space, the mine of night
 Illumines; in his never-ceasing course
 Attended by his moons of fainter light.

Not distant now, ye mountains! I admire
 Your form stupendous; but (oft with'd) approach
 Early, while yet the noiseless village sleeps,
 To gain your summit; season fit to rise
 Above the level plain so high in air.
 No burning sun now vapours grey exhales
 From humid meads, enveloping the view:
 No winds yon cottage chimney's curling smoke
 Disperse, scarce e'en disturb. The slender stems
 Of hare-bells blue are motionless and still:
 The thistle-down assumes its silvery wing,
 As if to wanton with the morning breeze,
 But to the ground, unbuoyant, soon descends.
 Tranquillity the elements pervades,
 And harmony the woods. No cloud obscures
 The wide horizon's undulating line,
 Where join'd seem earth and sky,—where azure mist
 Veils the soft landscape melting into light.
 —This winding path, close cropt by nibbling sheep
 (Its end the summit)—now my steps pursue.
 Keep earthward bent the eye,—forbearance wise,
 Diminishing; by no impatient gaze,
 Its pleas'd astonishment when sudden bursts
 The full, the wide circumference on its view.
 —When shall forbearance cease? —my beating heart
 Pants, like an eager steed, for liberty,
 When sounds the trumpet, to rush into the war.—
 —Now level treads the foot—the summit's gain'd—
 'GREAT GOD OF NATURE!—*these thy glorious works.*
 'ALMIGHTY! *thine this universal frame!*'

Say, who from these ærial heights can view
 A scene so vast, so various, and so grand—
 Woods, hills, inclosures, valleys, brooks, and fields—
 M 4 Unwarm'd

Unwarm'd by Ecstasy's celestial fire?
 Not, surely, that poor worm who proudly dares
 Deny the dread Supreme.—Hail, prospect fair!
 Replete with Deity! that preacheſt more
 Than human tongue can preach, ſave on one theme,
 (Fall'n man thro' grace reſtor'd) of power divine,
 Of goodneſs, mercy, wiſdom infinite,
 Enkindling rapture in th' adoring mind!
 —Here viſion roams unwearied, ſweetly woo'd
 By nature's thouſand charms:—nor reſting finds,
 Nor reſting needs, the gladly-roving eye.

So wanders freely o'er ſome gay parterre
 The bee melliferous,—on each fav'rite flower
 That tempts his ſtay—alighting; yet with none
 E'er tarrying long: from honeysuckle ſweet
 To ſweeter roſe the vagrant pilferer flies;
 And thence to where ſyringa's luſcious bloom
 Loads the mild zephyrs, or where lilac blends
 Its purple with laburnum's golden pride.

MUSINGS on arriving at, and quitting, the SUMMIT of the MALVERN HILLS, early in the Morning of WHITMONDAY.

[From MALVERN HILLS, a POEM, by JOSEPH COTTLE.]

NOW on the beacon's towering head I ſtand!
 The radiant ſun juſt peeps o'er yonder hill
 In ſilent grandeur, whiſt the neighbouring land,
 Like Ocean, drinks the ſplendor of the morn—
 One maſs of glory. Now the laſt faint ſtar
 Withdraws its timid ray, and ſlow the moon
 Sinks ſhadowy in the weſtern hemisphere.
 Beneath my feet, down the dark mountain's ſide,
 The clouds are troubled! now diſſolve they faſt!
 A fairy viſion! whiſt the early lark
 Up through their boſom mounts moſt merrily.

Oh what a luxury do they poſſeſs
 Who, riſing with the morn, taſte its firſt ſweets!
 The breeze that waves the long graſs to and fro,
 While yet the dew of heaven hangs thick upon it,
 Gives health, and raiſes the unfetter'd mind
 To loſtiefſt meditation. Day returns,
 And Nature, from a tranſient reſt, aſſumes
 Her wonted form, and ſeems to look more pleas'd
 For being ſeen. 'Tis well to contemplate
 On Providence, whoſe eye encircles all.
 Parent and guardian of creation round!

The elephant on thee depends for food,
 And all the intermediate train of shapes
 Down to the mite : and beings, smaller still,
 Potest of parts peculiar and complete,
 To whom the mite appears an elephant !
 All on our common Father call for bread !
 Learn it, astonish'd earth ! shout it, oh Heaven !
 He hears them all !

How little do we know
 Of this fair heritage ! this wondrous world !
 How little of ourselves, sublimest knowledge !
 And of that little what is blindly lost
 By him who wastes his hours in drowsiness !
 When in the grave we shall have sleep enough !
 Befits us now to do the work of day !
 A night is coming.

Tho' man's searching eye
 Hath pierc'd the ethereal vault where planets roll
 The eternal course, and suns their steady fires
 On other worlds bestow ; seen the vast orbs
 That tremble in the immeasurable void ;
 Yet these small things are lost in littleness,
 A drop of water to the boundless deep !
 Compar'd with Deity's unnumber'd works,
 Scatter'd beyond the utmost verge of sight,
 Where stars far distant never light exchange,
 And never comets in their wide career
 Blend their faint beams.

Most thankful be our hearts,
 That not to search the vast profound of space
 Reason requires to see the almighty power !
 This world, this land, this spot, an endless source
 Of meditation offers, where the eye,
 In every blade of grass, may view the God
 Who form'd the universe.

How bright the scene !
 Now the low cots appear, the distant hills,
 The fertile plains, far stretch'd on every side ;
 Whilst all the vast variety of forms
 In yonder sunny vale, tranquil and fair,
 O'erpower my ravish'd senses. What a sweep
 From mortal eye ! trees of an hundred years,
 From this huge mount, look like some tender sprays,
 And mock the toil to separate : whilst flocks,
 And scatter'd herds, so faintly meet my sight,
 They seem not living things. The goodly view

Makes

Makes my eye swim with rapture, and my heart
Feel ecstasy.

Ah! who could stand unmov'd,
And view this blue expanse, this beauteous orb,
This speaking tablet of intelligence!
Ah! who with cold—cold heart could view yon sun
Mounting the ethereal vault, whilst fiery clouds
Surround, and o'er the horizon's verge, far stretch'd,
Heap their rich columns? 'tis a sight, methinks,
No eye might contemplate, and not adore
The hand that made it.

Now the morning beam
Gilds each far eminence; a motley show
Of colours fanciful and starting shapes,
That quaint similitudes force on the mind.

Even now my heart beats high, for now I hear
The village bells beneath play merrily.
From hill to hill imperfect gladness bounds,
And floating murmurs die upon the air.
It is the long-look'd pastime now begun!
Aye! there they are upon the level green,
Maiden and rustic, deck'd in best attire,
And ushering in the Whitsun holidays:
Weaving the mazy dance, fantastic, whilst
Encircled by a gaping crowd of boys,
The merry piper stands, and capering plays;
Or, half forgetful of his half-learn'd tune,
Looks 'skantwise to behold his fav'rite lass
Pair'd with another; haply, smiling too.
The aged ploughman now forgets his team,
And, tho' to join the skipping throng too old,
Laughs to see others laugh, he knows not why,
Or, if in graver mood, looks wond'rous wise,
And tells his hoiden daughters as they pass,
Hold, maidens! hold! no whispering in the dance.
All, all is life and soothing jollity!
That king of sports is there, the mountebank,
With antic tricks, or, with no sparing hand,
Dealing around some nostrum, fam'd alike
Specific in all pains and maladies.
And there the village matrons gaily trimm'd,
With lace and tucker, handed down secure
Through a long line of prudent ancestors;
And never shewn to gaping multitude,
Save at some marriage gay, or yearly wake.

Musing the mothers look o'er all the plain,
 A cheerful smile unbends their wrinkled brow,
 The days departed start again to life,
 And all the scenes of childhood reappear,
 Faint, but more tranquil, like the changing sun
 To him who slept at noon and wakes at eve.
 Children of Innocence, sport on in peace!
 Enjoy the fair, but fleeting morn of life,
 And may no tempest spoil your holiday.

CONSCIENCE.

[From POEMS, Sacred and Moral, by THOMAS GISBORNE, M. A.]

'THERE—lie for ever there—' the murderer said;
 And prest his heel contemptuous on the dead—
 ' No terrors haunt the well-concerting mind!
 ' Vengeance my aim, thy gold I leave behind:
 ' Clutch'd in thy grasp be thy own knife survey'd—
 ' Thus—so may death self-fought thy name degrade!
 ' My steel, that did the deed, this lake shall hide—
 ' Here—rust beneath the all-concealing tide—
 ' The long descent these mounting bubbles tell—
 ' Down; down—still deeper—to the fancied hell.
 ' But why this needless care?—the wretch unknown—
 ' My garment bloodless—no man heard him groan—
 ' Nor he, the fabled monarch of the skies—'
 He spoke, and fix'd on heaven his iron eyes.

No terrors haunt the well concerting mind! —
 Say'st thou, when March unchains the midnight wind?
 When the full blast, as Alp-descending Po
 Whirls through the rocky freight the liquid snow,
 Down the vale driving with resistless course,
 Pours on thy walls its congregated force;
 When tottering chimneys bellow o'er thy head
 And the floor quakes beneath thy sleepless bed?

No terrors haunt thee! — Say'st thou, when the storm
 Bids all its horrors, each in wildest form,
 From adverse winds on wings of thunder haste,
 And close around thee on the naked waste:
 Bids at each flash untimely night retire,
 And opes and shuts the living vault of fire:
 When from each bursting cloud the arrowy flame
 Seems at thy central breast to point its aim;
 While crash on crash redoubles from on high,
 As though the shatter'd fabric of the sky

Would

Would rush in hideous ruin through the air,
To whelm the guilty wretch whom lightnings spare?

No terrors haunt thee!—Lo, 'tis Winter's reign:
His broad hand, plunging in the Atlantic main,
Lifts into mountain piles the boiling deep,
And bounds with vales of death each billowy steep.
Now, when thy bark, the dire ascent surpast,
Turns to the black abyfs the downward mast;
In that dread pause, while yet the dizzy prow
Poised on the verge o'erhangs the gulph below;
Now press thy conscious bosom, and declare
If guilt has raised no throbs of terror there.

Still art thou proof?—In sleep I see thee laid:
Dreams by the past inspired thy sleep invade.
Houfells and dream a plain expands in view:
There travels one like him thy fury flew:
Couch'd in the brake, a ruffian from his den
Starts forth, and acts thy bloody deed again:
Like thine his mien, like thine his iron stare
Fix'd in defiance on the vault of air.
Lo, as secure he quits the un plunder'd dead,
Wide-weltering seas of fire before him spread:
With frenzied step he hurries to the shore,
Shrieks, plunges headlong, and is seen no more!

Thou wak'st, and smil'st in scorn!—Has Heaven no dart
Potent to reach that adamant heart?
Yes. He, whose viewless gales the forest bend,
Whose feeblest means attain the mightiest end,
Touches the secret spring that opes the cell
Where Conscience lurks, and slumbering horrors dwell.
Lo, as the wretch his careless path pursues,
Struck by his foot a rusted knife he views.
In thought the blade conceal'd from mortal eyes
Beneath the lake his troubled soul descries.
In wild dismay his clouded senses swim;
Cold streams of terror bathe each shivering limb;
Then with new fires in every nerve he burns;
To earth, to heaven, his flashing eyeballs turns;
Buries with frantic hand the avenging knife
Deep in his breast, and renders life for life.

ODE to the SPIRIT of FRESHNESS.

[From the enlarged Edition of POLWHELE'S INFLUENCE of LOCAL ATTACHMENT with respect to HOME, &c.]

O THOU, the daughter of the vernal dew
 That glistering to the morn with pearly light
 The gentle Aura woo'd
 Beside a dripping cave;
 There, midst the blush of roses, won the nymph
 To dalliance, as in sighs she whisper'd love;
 There saw thee born, as May
 Unclos'd her laughing eye;
 Spirit of Freshness, hail! At this dim hour
 While, streakt with recent grey, the dawn appears,
 Where sport thy humid steps,
 Ambrosial essence, say?
 Haply, thy slippers glance along my path
 Where frosted lilies veil their silver bells
 Beneath the lively green
 Of their full-shading leaves.
 Or dost thou wander in the hoary field
 Where, overhead, I view the cautious hare
 Nibbling, while stillness reigns,
 The light-sprent barley-blade?
 Or dost thou hover o'er the hawthorn bloom,
 Where, in his nest of clay, the blackbird opes
 His golden lids, and tunes
 A soft-preluding strain;
 Or, art thou soaring mid the fleeced air
 To meet the day-spring, where the plume-wet lark
 Pours, sudden, his shrill note
 Beneath a dusky cloud?
 I see thee not—But lo! a vapory shape
 That oft belies thy form, emerging slow
 From that deep central gloom,
 Rests on the moontipt wood;
 Now, by a halo circled, sails along,
 As gleams with icicles his azure vest,
 Now shivers on the trees,
 And feebly sinks from sight.
 'Tis cold! And lo, upon the whitening folds
 Of the dank mist that fills the hollow dell,
 Chill damp with drizzly locks
 Glides in his lurid car;
 Where a lone fane o'er those broad rushes nods
 In slumberous torpor; save when sitting bat
 Stirs the rank ivy brown
 That clasps its oozing walls!

Yet,

Yet, yet, descending from yon eastern tent,
 Whose amber seems to kiss the wavy plain,
 A form, half-viewless, spreads
 A flush purpureal round.
 I know thee, Freshness! Lo, delicious green
 Sprinkles thy path. The bursting buds above
 With vivid moisture glow,
 To mark thy gradual way.
 The florets, opening, from their young cups dart
 The carmine blush, the yellow lustre clear:
 And now entranc'd, I drink
 Thy breath in living balms!
 And not a ryegrass trembles, but it gives
 A scent salubrious: not a flower exhales
 Its odors, but it breathes,
 O'er all, a cool repose.
 Mild shadowy power! whilst now thy tresses bath'd
 In primrose tints, the snowdrop's coldness shed
 On sky-blue hyacinths,
 Thy chaste and simple wreath;
 While flows to Zephyr thy transparent robe
 Stealing the colors of the lunar bow,
 How short thy vestal reign
 Amid the rosy lawn!
 Yes! if thou mix the saffron hues that stream
 From the bright orient with the roscid rays
 Of yonder orb that hangs
 A silvery drop, on high;
 Or, if thou love, along the lucent sod,
 To catch the sparkles of thy modest star;
 With all the mingled beams
 Heightening some virgin's bloom;
 Fleet as the shadow from the breded heaven
 Brushing the gossamer, thy steps retire
 Within the gelid gloom
 Of thy green-vested oak.
 There, as its ambient arch with airy sweep
 Chequers the ground, thine 'eyes of dewy light'
 Pursue the turf that floats
 In many a tremulous wave.
 And now, retreating to the breezy marge
 Of the pure stream, thy ruby fingers rear
 The new-blown flowers that wake
 To tinge its crystal tide:
 Or gently on thine alabaster urn
 Thy head reclines, beneath some aged beech
 That mid the crisped brook
 Steeps its long-wreathed roots;
 While from the cave where first thine essence sprung,
 Where the chaste Naiads rang'd their glittering spars,

Rills, trickling thro' the moss,
 Purl o'er the pebbled floor.
 There sleep till eve; as now the tyrant heat
 Kindles, with rapid strides, the extensive lawn,
 And e'en thy favourite haunt,
 The verdurous oak, invades.
 And may no vapors from that osier'd bank
 Annoy thee—thou, whose delicacy dreads,
 Tho' shrinking from the sun,
 The fallow's stagnant shade.
 There sleep till eve; unless the spring-lov'd showers,
 Pattering among the foliage, bid thee rise
 To taste those transient blooms
 That with the rainbow live.
 There sleep till eve; when as thy parent Air
 With feathery softness flutters o'er thine urn,
 And midst the vermeil bower,
 The dew thy feet impearls;
 Joy'd shalt thou hail the watery-tinted cloud,
 Whose radiant skirts half hide the westering orb,
 Whilst a fine emerald hue
 The whole horizon stains;
 Till thro' the fragrance of his sweet-briar leaves
 Thy glow-worm flings a solitary ray,
 As peace descends, to hush
 The twilight-bosom'd scene!

ODE for his MAJESTY'S BIRTH-DAY.

[By HENRY JAMES PYE, ESQ. POET-LAUREAT.]

WHILE loud and near, round Britain's coasts,
 The low'ring storm of battle roars,
 In proud array while numerous hosts
 Insulting threat her happy shores,
 No strains with peaceful descant blown
 Now float around Britannia's throne—
 The shouts from martial zeal that rise,
 The fires that beam from Glory's eyes,
 The sword that manly Freedom draws,
 In Freedom's patriot Monarch's cause,
 Shall with an angel's voice display
 How dear to Britain's sons their George's natal day.
 Triumphant o'er the blue domain
 Of hoary Ocean's briny reign,
 While Britain's navies boldly sweep
 With victor prow the stormy deep,
 Will Gallia's vanquish'd squadrons dare
 Again to try the wat'ry war,

Again

Again her floating castles brave,
 Terrific on the howling wave?
 Or on the fragile bark adventure o'er,
 Tempt her tempestuous seas, and scale her rocky shore?
 Or should the wind's uncertain gale
 Propitious swell the hostile sail;
 Should the dim mist, or midnight shade,
 Invasion's threaten'd inroad aid,
 Shall Britain, on her native strand,
 Shrink from a foe's inferior band?
 She vows, by Gallia taught to yield
 On Creci's and on Poitiers' field,
 By Agincourt's high trophy'd plain,
 Pild with illustrious nobles slain,
 By wandering Danube's distant flood,
 And Blenheim's ramparts red with blood,
 By chiefs on Minden's heaths who shone,
 By recent fame at Lincelles won,
 Her laurel'd brow she ne'er will veil,
 Or shun the shock of fight, though numerous hosts assail.
 Th' electric flame of glory runs
 Impetuous through her hardy sons.
 See, rushing from the farm and fold,
 Her swains in Glory's lists enroll'd.
 Though o'er the nations far and wide
 Gallia may pour oppression's tide,
 And, like Rome's tyrant race of yore,
 O'er-run each tributary shore;
 Yet, like the Julian chief, their hosts shall meet,
 Untam'd resistance here, and foul defeat;
 Shall, like Rome's rav'ning eagle, baffled fly
 From Britain's fatal cliffs, the abode of Liberty.
 Behold on Windsor's oak-fring'd plain,
 The pride of Albion's sylvan reign,
 Where oft the cheering hound and horn
 Have pierc'd the listening ear of morn,
 Rous'd by the clarion's warlike found,
 The heroes tread the tented ground;
 Where chiefs as brave as those of yore,
 Who chivalry's first honours wore,
 What time fair knighthood's knee around
 Th' embroider'd zone victorious Edward bound,
 Shall by their monarch's throne a bulwark stand,
 And guard in George's crown the welfare of the land.

The HERMIT and his HISTORY.

[From OBERON, a Poem, from the GERMAN of WIELAND, by WILLIAM SOTHEBY, ESQ.]

FROM the last step as Huon faint descends,
 Gay smiles, like Paradise, the lovely scene:
 A man before him stands of noble mien,
 Below his breast his silver beard extends,
 A girdle broad around his body roll'd,
 Confines his russet mantle's simple fold,
 And a long rosary at his girdle hung;
 By such plain signs, these lonely rocks among,
 All may aread his state without conjecture bold.

Plain on his noble aspect shone confest,
 Grandeur beneath a cowl that mildly gleam'd;
 His eye a smile on all creation beam'd:
 And tho' the touch of time had gently prest
 His neck, soft bow'd beneath the weight of years,
 Sublimely rais'd to heaven, his brow appears
 The shrine of peace; and like a sun-gilt height,
 Where never earthly mist obscur'd the light,
 Above the stormy world its tranquil summit rears.

Time from his features long had worn away
 The rust of earth, and passion's gloomy frown:
 He would not stoop to grasp a falling crown,
 Nor bend the sceptre of a world to sway.
 Free from the vain desires that earth enthrall,
 Free from vain terrors that mankind appal,
 Untouch'd by pain, and unassail'd by fear,
 To truth alone he turn'd his mental ear,
 Alone to nature tun'd, and her sweet simple call.

Ere from the storm of life to peace restor'd,
 He call'd himself Alonzo. Leon bore
 The noble infant on her pleasant shore,
 And rear'd him for the service of her lord.
 An' there with thousands like himself deceiv'd,
 He chas'd the shades, still cheating, still believ'd,
 That tempt the sight; yet still the touch elude;
 And like the chemist's stone in vain pursu'd,
 Leave the fond wretch they lur'd in hopeless misery griev'd.

And when he thus had wasted golden youth
 'Mid kingly smiles, and in the drunken mood
 Of self-delusion drain'd his wealth and blood,
 With zeal unthank'd, and unacknowledg'd truth,

In the fair morn of favor's roseate day,
 By sudden fall his fetters drop away :
 On the wide world's tempestuous ocean cast,
 How happy from the storm escap'd at last,
 To save the wreck of life, a want-devoted prey !

Yet still to cheer him in this wreck of life,
 One treasure, source of soothing peace remain'd :
 In this he deems all happiness regain'd ;
 A friend, a cottage, and a faithful wife.
 " O gracious Heaven ! but deign these blessings spare,
 " Spare me but these ! " was now his only prayer.
 No other with his happy spirit knew—
 Heav'n heard—ten years like one too swiftly flew,
 Then o'er their tomb he bow'd an image of despair !

Three sons, fair thriving in life's vernal bloom,
 The image of his youth, and hope of age,
 Are swept away by pestilential rage,
 And grief soon lays their mother in the tomb.
 Who now is left that sighs his sigh to hear,
 Who, when he weeps, consoles with answer'ing tear ?
 For, ah ! his only friend, he too is gone !
 Bereft of all he lov'd, he pines alone ;
 Lone, in a stranger world, bow'd down with woe severe !

He droops upon the desolated spot,
 A lone and leafless tree, 'mid stormy gales :
 The fountain of his joy for ever fails—
 How insupportable the friendless cot
 Where happiness once fix'd her chosen place !
 What is the world ? a vast and vacant space
 For fortune's wheel to roll around at will !
 His last lov'd prop now gone, why linger still ?
 His sole sad wish a grave, to end his weary race.

Within this void inhospitable seat
 Alphonso flew with woe-bewilder'd mind :
 And found, what grief had never hop'd to find,
 Peace and content as tardy years retreat.
 Tho' worldlings from the wretch had basely flown,
 One who Alphonso's prosperous days had known,
 An old domestic, faithful to his lord,
 Cleaves to his side in grief without reward—
 And here their sole retreat, the rude o'erhanging stone.

And by degrees he struggled thro' the flood
 That nigh o'erwhelm'd his soul in hopeless death—
 Peace, stillness, temperance, Zephyr's balmy breath,
 His mind unclouded, purified his blood,

And

And bade new hope a gleam of joy restore.
 And now he felt from heaven's exhaustless store
 That e'en for wounds like his a balsam flow'd :
 Felt, when the magic of a sun-beam glow'd,
 That nature's charms had pow'r to sooth his soul once more.

And when at last this paradise he saw,
 By some kind genius fenc'd with rocks around,
 As if for him a consecrated ground,
 He feels affliction from his soul withdraw :
 He feels his spirit glowing with delight,
 Rous'd from the tortures of a feverous night,
 Soar to the twilight of eternal day—
 " Here rest," he cries, " this paradise survey,
 " Rest, where no worldly grief our souls shall rudely smite !"

Thus in enjoyment, and alternate toil,
 He the late harvest of his life consum'd,
 And till'd his little spot, where ever bloom'd
 Luxuriant plenty from the grateful soil—
 Labour was pleasure, labour sweeten'd rest :
 Lost to the world, its miseries seem'd at best
 A childish dream, whene'er he turn'd to trace
 The wretched earnings of his earthly race :
 Thus conscience, health, and peace, his spirit daily blest.

Now, bow'd with years, his lov'd companion died—
 Alone remain'd the hermit, yet the more
 His spirit turn'd to that celestial shore,
 Where all he lov'd did with their God reside—
 There dwelt his soul—a wandering stranger here—
 'Mid the still night when objects disappear,
 And bodies, as external senses die,
 In their first nothing seem again to lie,
 Oft on his cheek he felt a breathing spirit near.

Then his half-slumbering ears in trance perceive,
 With shuddering rapture heard, the groves among,
 Angelic harmonies at distance sung,
 For him the inexpressive chorus weave :
 And as he lifts he feels earth's slender wall,
 That parts him from his friends, about to fall :
 His spirit swells, a flame celestial bright
 Burns in his breast, while rob'd in heavenly light
 Shapes of the viewless world his soul responsive call.

These yet remain, when softly laid in sleep
 His eyelids close, and in the morning rays
 When the wide world its theatre displays,
 Still o'er his sense the warbled echoes sweep ;

A soul-felt glance of heavenly joy supreme
 Gilds all around, the groves and mountains gleam;
 And, over all, he sees the form divine,
 The uncreated in his creatures shine,
 Bright as in drops of dew the sun's reflected beam.

Thus imperceptibly did heaven and earth
 United in his soul together run:
 His spirit brightens like an inward sun:
 Far from the dissonance of mortal birth,
 From passion's turmoil, in this holy gloom
 Joys that await the blest his soul illumine.
 Who locks my daring lip with viewless seal,
 Lest aught ineffable its warmth reveal?
 Mute o'er th' abyss I bend—man dares no more presume.

SITUATION, ORNAMENTS, &c. of a VILLA, adapted to lettered Ease.

[From an Epistle to a FRIEND, &c. by the Author of the PLEASURES OF
 MEMORY.]

STILL must my partial pencil love to dwell
 On the home-prospects of my hermit cell;
 The mossy pales that skirt the orchard green,
 Here hid by shrub-wood, there by glimpses seen;
 And the brown pathway, that, with careless flow,
 Sinks, and is lost among the trees below.
 Still must it trace (the flattering tints forgive)
 Each fleeting charm that bids the landscape live.
 Oft o'er the mead, at pleasing distance pass
 Browning the hedge by fits the pannier'd ass;
 The idling shepherd-boy, with rude delight,
 Whistling his dog to mark the pebble's flight;
 And in her kerchief blue the cottage-maid,
 With brimming pitcher from the shadowy glade.
 Far to the south a mountain-vale retires,
 Rich in its groves, and glens, and village-spires;
 Its upland lawns, and cliffs with foliage hung,
 Its wizard-stream, nor nameless nor unsung:
 And thro' the various year, the various day,
 What scenes of glory burst, and melt away!

Here no state-chambers in long line unfold,
 Bright with broad mirrors, rough with fretted gold;
 Yet modest ornament, with use combin'd,
 Attracts the eye to exercise the mind.

Small change of scene, small space his home requires,
Who leads a life of satisfied desires.

What tho' no marble breathes, no canvas glows,
From every point a ray of genius flows!
Be mine to bless the more mechanic skill,
That stamps, renews, and multiplies at will,
And cheaply circulates, thro' distant climes,
The fairest relics of the purest times.
Here from the mould to conscious being start
Those finer forms, the miracles of art;
Here chosen gems, imprest on sulphur, shine,
That slept for ages in a second mine;
And here the faithful graver dares to trace
A Michael's grandeur, and a Raphael's grace!
Thy gallery, Florence, gilds my humble walls,
And my low roof the Vatican recalls!

Soon as the morning-dream my pillow flies,
To waking sense what brighter visions rise!
O mark; again the coursers of the sun,
At Guido's call, their round of glory run!
Again the rosy Hours resume their flight,
Obscur'd and lost in floods of golden light!

But could thine erring friend so long forget
(Sweet source of pensive joy and fond regret)
That here its warmest hues the pencil flings,
Lo! here the lost restores, the absent brings;
And still the few best lov'd and most rever'd
Rise round the board their social smile endear'd?

Selected shelves shall claim thy studious hours;
There shall thy ranging mind be fed on flowers!
There, while the shaded lamp's mild lustre streams,
Read ancient books, or woo inspiring dreams;
And, when a sage's bust arrests thee there,
Pause, and his features with his thoughts compare.
—Ah, most that art my grateful rapture calls,
Which breathes a soul into the silent walls;
Which gathers round the wise of every tongue,
All on whose words departed nations hung;
Still prompt to charm with many a converse sweet;
Guides in the world, companions in retreat!

Tho' my thatch'd bath no rich mosaic knows,
A limpid stream with unfelt current flows.
Emblem of life! which, still as we survey,
Seems motionless, yet ever glides away!
The shadowy walls record, with Attic art,
The strength and beauty that its waves impart.

Here Thetis, bending, with a mother's fears
 Dips her dear boy, whose pride restrains his tears.
 There Venus, rising, shrinks with sweet surprize,
 As her fair self reflected seems to rise!

LINES from a Sick and Dying PLANT at HAMPTON COURT, to her
 VIGOROUS HEALTHY SISTER at SURBITON FARM.

[From Mrs. MOODY'S POETIC TRIFLES.]

THOU dear companion of my birth,
 The produce of one parent earth;
 The care of one protecting hand,
 And springing both from courtly land:
 Ah why did fate our lots disjoin,
 And blessings only give to thine!
 Why were not we, twin sisters, sent
 To the same rural banishment?
 How chang'd since our last parting scene,
 Thy Columnea's lovely mien:
 When all my buds expanding grew,
 With colour of a scarlet hue:
 My stem possess'd a vigorous power,
 Though framed to bear a slender flower;
 And on my leaves of tender green,
 Was Nature's lightest pencil seen.
 Thus from the nursery we came,
 With charms deserving equal fame:
 But equal fortune was not given;
 Thine was the charge of kinder Heaven.
 Yet mine, beheld through fashion's glass,
 Where grandeur's glittering visions pass,
 A happier dispensation seem'd;
 And thine a vulgar lot was deem'd;
 For I was destin'd to resort
 Amid the precincts of a court;
 While thou an exile to a cot,
 By courts and courtiers art forgot.
 But Nature judging in our case,
 Decides through my declining face,
 That tainted gales a court surround,
 Where noxious particles abound;
 She near no palace will reside,
 Averse to haunts of wealth and pride;
 Her laws exploded there she sees,
 And all revers'd her pure decrees.
 Hence she abandons grandeur's seats,
 And seeks simplicity's retreats.

Alas!

Alas ! remote from her, my fate,
 Consigns me to a room of state ;
 Where fashion her gay taste bestows,
 And her fantastick trappings flows.
 Here plac'd by her capricious hand,
 On the cold marble hearth I stand ;
 Within a baneful chimney's shade,
 Whose sooty blasts my blossoms fade.
 The frigid stone repels my leaves,
 A polish'd grave my roots receives.
 Here frugal skreens obstruct the light,
 And doom me to a noon-day night.
 Alike exclude the healthful breeze ;
 In vain for me it fans the trees.
 The sons of art presume to say,
 That mischief waits the god of day ;
 If uncontroll'd he pierce the gloom,
 Destruction hovers round the room ;
 The varnish'd table's colour flies ;
 Each tint upon the curtain dies ;
 The carpet's hues, appall'd with fright,
 Grow pale and sicken at his sight :
 Greens, yellows, reds, all fade away,
 Consum'd in Sol's refulgent ray.
 They also charge the friendly wind,
 With disposition most unkind ;
 Asserting he much evil brings,
 By dust he scatters from his wings.
 Of sun and air thus art complains,
 And as despoilers both arraigns.
 We, nature's children, scorn this lore ;
 We, plants, these genial powers adore :
 We turn to greet Apollo's shrine,
 Our homage owns his ray divine ;
 Great source from whom we life derive,
 Whose beams denied, no flowers survive.
 Alike we hail the god of air,
 Who marks the same paternal care ;
 Who all we ask vouchsafes to give ;
 His balmy breath by which we live.
 Now, sister, view our different fate !
 Thy humble lot—my fashion'd state !
 Sequester'd thus from light and air ;
 Of nature's gifts allow'd no share,
 In dying pomp I here reside,
 With two pale sisters by my side ;
 Whose drooping heads to earth incline,
 And blend their wither'd leaves with mine.
 While I thus fade before my time,
 Thy charms still flourish in their prime.

No rules of art thy state confine,
 Kind nature's bounty still is thine.
 For thee the sun may spread his light;
 No tyrant shutters hide his sight;
 For thee through groves may Zephyr stray,
 No barrier turns his gales away;
 For thee may fragrant dews descend,
 No roofs oppose no walls defend.
 Thus free to take all Heaven supplies,
 The grateful influence of the skies;
 Unchang'd thy beauties still remain,
 Preserv'd amid the rustic plain.

Like me how many a courtier dame,
 The slave of fashion's empty name!
 Perverting nature's wiser plan,
 Curtails of life the little span.
 By art consumes her vernal bloom,
 And hastens death's untimely doom!

GOODY BLAKE and HARRY GILL.

[From LYRICAL BALLADS, &c.]

O H! what's the matter? what's the matter
 What is't that ails young Harry Gill?
 That evermore his teeth they chatter,
 Chatter, chatter, chatter still.
 Of waistcoats Harry has no lack,
 Good duffle grey, and flannel fine;
 He has a blanket on his back,
 And coats enough to smother nine.

In March, December, and in July,
 'Tis all the same with Harry Gill;
 The neighbours tell, and tell you truly,
 His teeth they chatter, chatter still.
 At night, at morning, and at noon,
 'Tis all the same with Harry Gill;
 Beneath the sun, beneath the moon,
 His teeth they chatter, chatter still.

Young Harry was a lusty drover,
 And who so stout of limb as he?
 His cheeks were red as ruddy clover,
 His voice was like the voice of three.
 Auld Goody Blake was old and poor,
 Ill fed she was, and thinly clad;

And

And any man who pass'd her door,
Might see how poor a hut she had.

All day she spun in her poor dwelling,
And then her three hours' work at night!
Alas! 'twas hardly worth the telling,
It would not pay for candle-light.
—This woman dwelt in Dorsetshire,
Her hut was on a cold hill-side,
And in that country coals are dear,
For they come far by wind and tide.

By the same fire to boil their pottage,
Two poor old dames, as I have known,
Will often live in one small cottage,
But she, poor woman, dwelt alone.
'Twas well enough when summer came,
The long, warm, lightsome summer-day,
Then at her door the *canty* dame
Would sit, as any linnet gay.

But when the ice our streams did fetter,
Oh! then how her old bones would shake!
You would have said, if you had met her,
'Twas a hard time for Goody Blake.
Her evenings then were dull and dead;
Sad case it was, as you may think,
For very cold to go to bed,
And then for cold not sleep a wink.

Oh joy for her! whene'er in winter
The winds at night had made a rout,
And scatter'd many a lusty splinter,
And many a rotten bough about.
Yet never had she, well or sick,
As every man who knew her says,
A pile before-hand, wood or stick,
Enough to warm her for three days.

Now, when the frost was past enduring,
And made her poor old bones to ache,
Could any thing be more alluring,
Than an old hedge to Goody Blake?
And now and then, it must be said,
When her old bones were cold and chill,
She left her fire, or left her bed,
To seek the hedge of Harry Gill.

Now Harry he had long suspected
This trespass of old Goody Blake,

And

And vow'd that she should be detected,
 And he on her would vengeance take.
 And oft from his warm fire he'd go,
 And to the fields his road would take,
 And there, at night, in frost and snow,
 He watch'd to seize old Goody Blake.

And once behind a rick of barley,
 Thus looking out did Harry stand;
 The moon was full and shining clearly,
 And crisp with frost the stubble-land.
 --He hears a noise—he's all awake—
 Again?—on tip-toe down the hill
 He softly creeps—'Tis Goody Blake,
 She's at the hedge of Harry Gill.

Right glad was he when he beheld her:
 Stick after stick did Goody pull,
 He stood behind a bush of elder,
 Till she had filled her apron full.
 When with her load she turned about,
 The bye-road back again to take,
 He started forward with a shout,
 And sprang upon poor Goody Blake.

And fiercely by the arm he took her,
 And by the arm he held her fast,
 And fiercely by the arm he shook her,
 And cried, "I've caught you then at last!"
 Then Goody, who had nothing said,
 Her bundle from her lap let fall;
 And kneeling on the sticks, she pray'd
 To God that is the judge of all.

She pray'd, her wither'd hand uprearing,
 While Harry held her by the arm—
 "God! who art never out of hearing,
 "O may he never more be warm!"
 The cold, cold moon above her head,
 Thus on her knees did Goody pray,
 Young Harry heard what she had said,
 And icy-cold he turned away.

He went complaining all the morrow
 That he was cold and very chill:
 His face was gloom, his heart was sorrow,
 Alas! that day for Harry Gill!
 That day he wore a riding coat,
 But not a whit the warmer he:
 Another was on Thursday brought;
 And ere the Sabbath he had three.

'Twas all in vain, a useless matter,
 And blankets were about him pin'd;
 Yet still his jaws and teeth they clatter,
 Like a loose casement in the wind.
 And Harry's flesh it fell away;
 And all who see him say 'tis plain,
 That, live as long as live he may,
 He never will be warm again.

No word to any man he utters,
 A-bed or up, to young or old;
 But ever to himself he mutters,
 "Poor Harry Gill is very cold."
 A-bed or up, by night or day;
 His teeth they chatter, chatter still.
 Now think, ye farmers all, I pray,
 Of Goody Blake and Harry Gill.

The OBLIGATION ON MOTHERS TO SUCKLE their OFFSPRING.

[From the NURSE, a Poem, translated from the Italian, by WILLIAM
 ROSCOE.]

WHAT fury, hostile to our common kind,
 First led from nature's path the female mind,
 Th' ingenuous sense by fashion's laws repress,
 And to a babe denied its mother's breast?
 What! could she, as her own existence dear,
 Nine tedious months her tender burthen bear,
 Yet when at length it smil'd upon the day,
 To hireling hands its helpless frame convey?
 —Whilst yet conceal'd in life's primæval folds,
 Th' unconscious mass her proper body holds;
 Whilst in her mind distracting fears arise,
 Stranger to that which in her bosom lies;
 Whilst led by ignorance, wild fancy apes
 Uncouth distortions and perverted shapes;
 Yet then securely rests the promis'd brood,
 Screen'd by her cares and nurtur'd by her blood.
 But when reliev'd from danger and alarms,
 The perfect offspring leaps into her arms,
 Turns to a mother's face its asking eyes,
 And begs for pity by its tender cries;
 Then, whilst young life its opening powers expands,
 And the meek infant spreads its searching hands,
 Scents the pure milk-drops as they slow distill,
 And thence anticipates the plenteous rill,
 From her first grasp the smiling babe she flings,
 Whilst pride and folly seal the gushing springs;

Hopeful

Hopeful that pity can by her be shewn,
Who for another's offspring quits her own.

Ah! sure ye deem that nature gave in vain
Those swelling orbs that life's warm streams contain;
As the soft simper, or the dimple sleek
Hangs on the lip, or wantons in the cheek;
Nor heed the duties that to these belong,
The dear nutrition of your helpless young.
—Why else, ere health's returning lustre glows,
Check ye the milky fountain as it flows?
Turn to a stagnant mass the circling flood,
And with disease contaminate the blood?

O crime! with herbs and drugs of essence high,
The sacred fountains of the breast to dry!
Pour back on nature's self the balmy tide
Which nature's God for infancy supplied!
—Does horror shake us when the pregnant dame,
To spare her beauties, or to hide her shame,
Destroys, with impious rage and arts accurst,
Her growing offspring ere to life it burst,
And can we bear, on every slight pretence,
The kindred guilt that marks this dread offence?
—As the green herb fresh from its earliest root,
Young life protrudes its yet uncertain shoot,
Or falls, unconscious of the blighting storm,
A dubious victim, and a shadowy form;
But she who to her babe her breast denies,
The sentient mind, the living man destroys;
Arrests kind nature's liberal hand too soon,
And robs her helpless young of half the boon.
—'Tis his, not hers—the colour only chang'd,
Erewhile thro' all the throbbing veins it rang'd;
Pour'd thro' each artery its redundant tide,
And with rich stream incipient life supplied;
And when full time releas'd the imprison'd young,
Up to the breasts, a living river, sprung.

Doubt ye the laws by nature's God ordain'd,
Or that the callous young should be sustain'd
Upon the parent breast?—be those your schools
Where nature triumphs, and where instinct rules.
No beast so fierce from Zembla's northern strand,
To Ethiopia's barren realms of sand,
But midst her young her milky fountain shares,
With teats as numerous as the brood she rears.
Two breasts ye boast for this kind end alone,
That your twin offspring each should have its own.

Does no remorse, ye fair, your bosoms gnaw,
 Rebellious to affection's primal law?
 Persist ye still, by her mild voice unaw'd,
 False to yourselves, your offspring, and your God?
 Mark but your proper frame—what wond'rous art,
 What fine arrangement rules in every part;
 As the blood rushes thro' each swelling vein,
 The ruddy tide appropriate vessels strain;
 And whilst around the limpid current flows,
 To shape and strength th' unconscious embryo grows,
 But when 'tis born, then nature's secret force
 Gives to the circling stream another course;
 The starting beverage meets the thirsty lip,
 'Tis joy to yield it, and 'tis joy to sip.
 So when th' experienced chieftain leads along
 To distant enterprise his warrior throng,
 He, as they move, with ever-watchful cares
 Their stores of needful nutriment prepares;
 Still prompt, ere hunger ask, or thirst invade,
 With due supplies and stationary aid.

CHARACTER of the BRITISH SATIRISTS.

[From the PROGRESS of SATIRE, an Essay, in Verse.]

FROM these illustrious models * Britain draws
 The moral song, and frames her Satire's laws:
 But to new themes her muse applies the rhyme,
 Free as her sons, and varying as her clime.
 To life, to manners, now no more confined,
 The general faults or follies of mankind,
 For bolder flights proud Satire plumes her wings,
 The friend, or foe, of statesmen and of kings,
 And oft, with Faction's fierce resentment warm,
 Points her dread vengeance, and "directs the storm."

Rough Donne, in homely strains, devoid of art,
 Spoke the plain truths that prove an honest heart.
 In learning rich, in native humour bold,
 His merry tale the laughing Butler told,
 And mark'd fanatic pride and factious zeal
 In satire faithful to his country's weal.
 But Dryden's vigorous muse, as interest sways,
 Now wounds by satire, and now soothes by praise:
 Now stoops to crush an envious poet's name,
 The dull proud rival of his splendid fame,

* The Roman satirists.

Now weaves the mystic fable, to expose
 Dire faction's arts and brand a monarch's foes.
 Oh ! had'st thou scorn'd thy towering soul to bend,
 Of guilt the flatterer, and of vice the friend.
 Ill-fated bard ! how few with generous pride,
 Assail'd by want, can stem corruption's tide ?
 How few, when life is cruel fortune's sport,
 Could shun the gay allurements of a court ?
 'Tis thus the pitying muse her wrath allays,
 And half forgives the strain she dares not praise.

But who thy finish'd beauties can display,
 Pope, mighty master of the moral lay ?
 Whose manly wit and polish'd taste combine,
 Point the strong sense, and tune th' harmonious line.
 Soft as the strains that grac'd th' Horatian lyre,
 Sublime as Juvenal's more vigorous fire,
 Thy magic numbers with prevailing art
 Steal on th' enraptured ear, and win the heart.
 Each form succeeding bards for satire choose
 Springs from thy various, thy accomplish'd muse ;
 Whether they claim just imitation's praise,
 And classic thoughts adapt to British lays,
 Or, more inventive, in appropriate rhymes
 Display the manners, and record the times,
 Or, mighty trifles studious to rehearse,
 Strut on the stilts of mock-heroic verse,
 Or dash proud dulness from Parnassus' height,
 And with the muse's arms assert the muse's right.

Alas ! could wit, could genius bright as thine
 E'er give to spleen one harsh ungenerous line ;
 Or bid with bitter eloquence to flow
 That verse " which made an Addison thy foe ?"

With wit that else had claim'd an equal prize,
 But taste less just, see virtuous Young arise !
 His keen remark, well-temper'd, though severe,
 His lively sentence, and his pointed sneer,
 At general vice, or flagrant follies, aim
 Their nobler sting, nor wound one honour'd name.

But soon 'twas thine to mark, indignant muse,
 Degen'rate Satire warp'd by party views.
 See her bold front Malignity display,
 And Faction triumph in fierce Churchill's lay !
 Nor Candour's voice, nor sense of right and wrong,
 Checks in its course his dire vindictive song.
 He deals on every side the fatal blow,
 Nor owns sense, wit, or virtue in a foe.
 And yet insulted Candour must admire,
 Distinguish'd bard, thy muse's strength and fire,

Must own, if party-zeal had ne'er confined
To transient themes thy bold and fervid mind,
Britain had dwelt with rapture on thy page,
Preserv'd by genuine worth from age to age.

Still Satire seeks a transitory name,
Nor heeds the call of never-dying fame,
Pursues vain shadows, and exerts her power
To catch the fleeting fashions of an hour.
Shrouded in night, the feign'd Macgregor pours
The tide of song from wit's abundant stores,
Skill'd to combine with humour's richest vein
The pomp of verse, the mock majestic strain.
And thou, sweet bard! o'er whose untimely urn
The Graces droop, the Muse delights to mourn,
Tickell, in vain to taste, to genius dear,
Accept this fond, this tributary tear!
'Twas thine by playful ridicule to seize
Gay Fashion's follies, yet her vot'ries please,
Stern Party's rage by sprightly wit allay,
And cheer her gloomy scenes by fancy's ray.
Oh! hadst thou e'er, by true ambition fired,
To nobler themes, to lasting fame, aspired,
Each charm, each gift of the propitious nine,
That graced th' Ausonian lays, had beam'd in thine.

Severer Satire, from a different source,
Flow'd with rough vehemence and turbid course.
When C—s from Fashion's heavenly region fell,
Enraged he waked the majesty of hell,
And bade him, issuing from th' infernal gloom,
Record distinguish'd guilt, and stamp its doom.
Harsh was his censure, not unjust his aim;
While Satire echoed the loud voice of fame.

But lo! what tumults rise? what bustling throng
Provokes the scornful critic's angry song?
'Tis Affectation's motley crew invades,
With steps unhallow'd, the Pierian shades:
They seize the sacred chair, their shrill notes raise,
And ring th' unvarying peal of mutual praise.
Mourn, classic muse! conceit pollutes thy strain,
Proud Nonsense triumphs in her Crusca's reign:
When see, resentment sparkling in his eyes,
To crush thy foes indignant G——d rise!
Thy foes, the fluttering insects of an hour,
Fly from his rage, or bow beneath his power.
Yet why, victorious champion, why abuse
The cheap and easy conquest of thy muse?

Insult

Insult the fall'n, or brand some bards who claim
 No proud distinction in the ranks of fame?
 The modest poet's unobtrusive lays
 True candour pardons where it cannot praise.
 Conceit once check'd, let angry warfare cease,
 And unoffending dullness rest in peace.

Part of an ADDRESS to the SUN, a FRAGMENT.

[FROM POEMS, by JOSEPH FAWCETT.]

THOU dazzling ball! vast universe of flame!
 Idol sublime! Error's most glorious god!
 Whose peerless splendours plead in the excuse
 Of him that worships thee, and shine away
 The sin of pagan knees! whose awful orb,
 Though Truth informs my more enlightened creed,
 Almost entices my o'er-ravished heart
 To turn idolator, and tempts my mouth
 To kiss my hand before thee. Nature's pride!
 Of matter most magnificent display!
 Bright masterpiece of dread Omnipotence!
 Ocean of splendour! wond'rous world of light!
 Thy sweet return my kindled lays salute.

Hail, amiable vision! every eye
 Looks up and loves thee; every tongue proclaims
 'Tis pleasant to behold thee; rosy Health,
 And laughing Joy, thy beauteous daughters, play
 Before thy face for ever, and rejoice
 In thine indulgent ray. Nature mourns
 Thine annual departure; in despair,
 Like one forsaken by her love, she sits,
 And tears from off her all her gay attire,
 And drowns her face in tears, and languid lies,
 As if of life devoid: but lo, she lives!
 She lives again! her glorious rover comes,
 To wake her from her lethargy of woe,
 And warm her into beauty with his smile.

Fountain of inspiration! fir'd by thee,
 Imagination's sacred tumults rise,
 And pour upon the fair, immortal page,
 The splendid image and the burning word!
 Oh hallow'd hour! o'erflowing with delight!
 Moments of more than earthly ecstasy!
 When the blest bard, panting beneath thy rays,
 Feels the fine rapture silently infus'd
 Into his agitated breast; and full

Of his bright god, with lofty fury raves,
 Celestially disturb'd ! till the strong flames,
 That his whole soul to heavenly madness heat,
 Have spent their blaze in all the rage of song !

Great conflagration ! whose immortal fires,
 With mystic, everlasting fewel fed,
 Flame with a generous fury, flame to spread
 Far other scene than smoking ruin round,
 Fair flowers and smiling verdure, fields that wave
 With yellow wealth, and boughs that stoop beneath
 Their blushing load, with affluence oppress !

Great Father of the system ! round whose throne,
 In filial circles all thy children shine,
 Exulting in thy kind, paternal smile !
 Well-order'd family ! for ever free
 From jarring strife ; harmonious moving on
 In easy dance ; and calling human life
 To lift the music of your silent glide,
 And make its social system chime like yours.
 Preceptors sweet of concert and of love !
 Had but this noisy scene an ear to learn.

Or is thy name, the student's sacred lamp,
 Hung up on high, and trimm'd by Heaven's own hand ?
 By whose pure light, more precious to his eye,
 Than that which trembles on his nightly page,
 (Man's puny tome,) with silent joy he reads
 The broad, instructive sheet, which thou hast held,
 All wise instructor ! to thy pupil man,
 Through every age. Invaluable book !
 In schools unrival'd, though but little read !
 Fair, faultless piece ! immortal work of Heaven !
 Bible of ages ! boundless word of God !
 Writ in a language to all nations known ;
 And, through all time, with care divine, preserv'd
 From all corrupt interpolations pure.

Or art thou Nature's eye, to whose keen sight
 The system's utmost circle naked lies ? —
 Oh, tell a curious mortal all thou seest !
 Say, by what various beings tenanted,
 The orbs that borrow thy refulgent blaze ;
 Made of what matter ; moulded to what form ;
 Blest with what organs ; with what minds inform'd ;
 Spurr'd by what passions ; on what arts intent ;
 Eager in what pursuits ; and by what ties
 Combin'd : — Oh, say, all-searching radiance, say,
 (For doubtless mortal and immortal all),

Taught by what discipline the generous love
Of beauteous Virtue; to what duties call'd;
By what temptations urg'd to act those deeds
Which stain thy day, and by what motives fir'd,
With moral splendours, to outshine thy beams.

Or wilt thou tell of thy revolving spheres,
Which wears the bays of genius? whose quick sons
Have shot, with farthest wing, into the field
Of Nature's works; or most sublimely soar'd,
On eagle pinions, to that parent-fun,
At whose eternal glories thine were lit?
Say, hast thou seen a creature's compass take
An ampler sweep over the dread immense,
Than that which turned obedient to the hand
Of him we Newton name, our earth's proud boast?
Or, in which world of this our neighbourhood,
Hath there been wav'd a wand of mightier call
Than our renown'd, immortal Shakespear mov'd
O'er Nothing's vast profound, and said, let be,
And, lo, it was! lo, a bright universe
Of great and fair, of transports, and of woes,
And charming fears! in bards or fages, say,
Which is the ball that bears away the prize.

FROST at MIDNIGHT.

[From FEARS in SOLITUDE, &c. by S. T. COLERIDGE.]

THE frost performs it's secret ministry,
Unhelp'd by any wind. The owl's cry
Came loud—and hark, again! loud as before.
The inmates of my cottage, all at rest,
Have left me to that solitude, which suits
Abstruser musings: save that at my side
My cradled infant slumbers peacefully.
'Tis calm indeed! so calm, that it disturbs
And vexes meditation with it's strange
And extreme silentness. Sea, hill, and wood,
This populous village! Sea, and hill, and wood,
With all the numberless goings on of life,
Inaudible as dreams! The thin blue flame
Lies on my low-burnt fire, and quivers not:
Only that film, which flutter'd on the grate,
Still flutters there, the sole unquiet thing.
Methinks, it's motion in this hush of nature

Gives

Gives it dim sympathies with me, who live
 Making it a companionable form,
 With which I can hold commune. Idle thought!
 But still the living spirit in our frame,
 That loves not to behold a lifeless thing,
 Transfuses into all it's own delights -
 It's own volition, sometimes with deep faith
 And sometimes with fantastic playfulness.
 Ah me! amus'd by no such curious toy
 Of the self-watching subtilising mind,
 How often in my early school-boy days
 With most believing superstitious wish
 Presageful have I gaz'd upon the bars,
 To watch the stranger there! and oft belike,
 With unclos'd lids, already had I dreamt
 Of my sweet birthplace, and the old church-tower,
 Whose bells, the poor man's only music, rang
 From morn to evening, all the hot fair-day,
 So sweetly, that they stirr'd and haunted me
 With a wild pleasure, falling on mine ear
 Most like articulate sounds of things to come!
 So gaz'd I, till the soothing things, I dreamt,
 Lull'd me to sleep, and sleep prolong'd my dreams!
 And so I brooded all the following morn,
 Aw'd by the stern preceptor's face, mine eye
 Fix'd with mock study on my swimming book:
 Save if the door half open'd, and I snatch'd
 A hasty glance, and still my heart leapt up,
 For still I hop'd to see the stranger's face,
 Townsman, or aunt, or sister more belov'd,
 My play-mate when we both were cloth'd alike!

Dear babe, that sleepest cradled by my side,
 Whose gentle breathings, heard in this dead calm,
 Fill up the interspersed vacancies
 And momentary pauses of the thought!
 My babe so beautiful! it fills my heart
 With tender gladdens, thus to look at thee,
 And think, that thou shalt learn far other lore,
 And in far other scenes! For I was rear'd
 In the great city, pent mid cloisters dim,
 And saw nought lovely but the sky and stars.
 But thou, my babe! shalt wander like a breeze,
 By lakes and sandy shores, beneath the crags
 Of ancient mountain, and beneath the clouds,
 Which image in their bulk both lakes and shores
 And mountain crags: so shalt thou see and hear
 The lovely shapes and sounds intelligible
 Of that eternal language, which thy God
 Utters, who from eternity doth teach

Himself in all, and all things in himself.
Great universal teacher ! he shall mould
Thy spirit, and by giving make it ask.

Therefore all seasons shall be sweet to thee,
Whether the summer clothe the general earth
With greenness, or the redbreasts sit and sing
Betwixt the tufts of snow on the bare branch
Of mossy apple-tree, while all the thatch
Smokes in the sun-thaw : whether the eave-drops fall
Heard only in the trances of the blast,
Or whether the secret ministry of cold
Shall hang them up in silent icicles,
Quietly shining to the quiet moon,
Like those my babe ! which, ere to-morrow's warmth
Have capp'd their sharp keen points with pendulous drops,
Will catch thine eye, and with their novelty
Suspend thy little soul ; then make thee shout,
And stretch and flutter from thy mother's arms
As thou would'st fly for very eagerness.

ELEGY. SPRING—1796.

[From POEMS, by J. HUCKS, A. M. &c.]

DELIGHTFUL Spring, I taste thy balmy gales
Pregnant with life, my pensive soul they cheer,
Creation smiles, the woods, the hills, the vales,
Hail the gay morning of the dawning year.

Expand, ye groves, your renovated bloom,
Warble, ye streams, ye swelling buds, unfold,
Wait all the plenty of your rich perfume,
And wave, ye florets, wave your locks of gold.

Rapt in the maze of nature's boundless charms,
I gaze insatiate, wonder and admire,
Ah ! how they soothe th' impassion'd heart's alarms,
And wake, to transport short, the woe-struck lyre.

But soon, the contrast blackens on the view,
These scenes of beauty, man insatiate mars,
Cloaths smiling nature with a mournful hue,
Blasts all her blooms, and with her music jars.

O ! might

O! might the moral spring but once revolve
 It's infant blossoms, 'midst the noon-tide blaze;
 Barbaric passion's low'ring mists dissolve,
 While dawn'd pure reason, with serener rays.

O fool! to think it—winter, bleak and foul,
 There broods, eternal—hope creates, in vain,
 Fantastic forms, which please the cheated soul,
 Poor air-built fabrics of the poet's brain.

See life and health enliven all around,
 O'er lawns and woods the eye delighted roves:
 While pour an artless harmony of sound,
 Flocks from the fields, and warblers from the groves.

Luxuriant verdure, here, adorns the plain,
 There, the grey fallows and the toiling team,
 The farm's neat mansion, and the village fane,
 Whose moss-clad tower reflects the solar gleam.

But ah! while nature pours th'enlivening breath,
 Paints her fair forms, and spreads her treasures here;
 O'er other shores, black sweeps the cloud of death,
 Glares the red falchion, and the murderous spear.

Ev'n now, perhaps, confronting armies meet,
 Loud roll the drums, the thundering cannons roar,
 Rocks the dire field beneath unnumber'd feet,
 And horror waves his locks bedropt with gore.

Thro' dust in whirlwinds driv'n, inconstant seen,
 Thick flash the swords, the frequent victim falls;
 While o'er his mangled trunk, and ghastly mien,
 Hofts trampling rush, where maniac fury calls.

Say, foldier! say, grim spectacle of pain,
 What syren lur'd thee from thy peaceful home;
 To leave thy poor, thy small domestic train,
 For toils of arms, o'er billowy deeps to roam.

No beams of glory cheer thy hapless lot,
 Thy name descends not to a future age,
 Impell'd to combat for thou knew'st not what,
 And urg'd to slaughter, by another's rage:

Thy widow'd wife, thine orphan children weep,
 And beg their scanty meal from door to door,
 While gash'd with wounds, thy limbs dishonour'd sleep,
 And waste and moulder, on a foreign shore.

In vain, alas! we boast of civil worth,
And vaunt of virtue in religion's robe;
If calm we view ambition issuing forth
Her brood of scorpions, to infest the globe.

The bonds of nature we asunder part:
Led by the blaze of passion's sanguine star,
Peace on the lips, and murder in the heart,
To savage, brutal, fell, infernal war.

Hark! a glad sound my roving thought recalls,
The distant sheep-bell fills the quivering breeze,
The shade, slow-deep'ning, o'er the landscape falls,
And veil'd in mist, the dim horizon flees.

As the poor shepherd folds his fleecy care,
Loud chaunts the nightingale her evening lay;
Sing on, sweet songstrels! homeward I repair,
Warn'd by thy requiem to the closing day.

DOMESTIC LITERATURE

Of the Year 1798.

ON returning to our periodical task of classing and characterizing the productions in British Literature, we do not meet with many publications of importance in the department of biblical criticism and theology. "*Horæ Biblicæ*," is the title of a work which, although of no great magnitude, and professing only to consist of "notes committed to paper, with a view to impress on the memory the result of some miscellaneous reading on different subjects of biblical literature," may be read with advantage by students in scripture criticism. The topics distilled in these collectanea are, the rise and decline of the Hebrew language; with an account of the *Mishna*, the *Gemara*, and the *Targums*; the Hellenistic language; the effect produced on the style of the New Testament by the Hellenistic idiom of the writers, by rabbinical doctrines and controversies among the Jewish sects, by the literary pursuits of the Jews; their political subserviency to the Romans, &c. the biblical literature of the middle ages; the *Massora*, *Keri*, and *Ketibh*; the controversy respecting the nature, antiquity, and utility of the vowel points; the history of the Jews after their return from the Babylonish captivity to the birth of Christ, and subsequently to the Christian æra; the Hebrew MSS. and printed editions

of the Hebrew Bible; the principal Greek MSS. of the New Testament; the biblical labours of Origen; the polyglottic editions, and the oriental versions of the New Testament; the Latin vulgate; the English translations of the Bible; the division of the Bible into chapters and verses; and the various readings of the sacred text, so far as they may be supposed to influence the questions respecting its purity, authenticity, or divine inspiration. On these various subjects, the author has compressed into his work much useful and curious information, interspersed with remarks and anecdotes which discover extensive reading and considerable liberality of mind. To Mr. Butler, of Lincoln's Inn, by profession a lawyer, and in religion a Catholic, this volume is generally attributed.

The object of Mr. George Benjoin, in his treatise, entitled "*the Integrity and Excellence of Scripture; a Vindication of the much controverted Passages, Deut. VII. 2, 5, and XX. 16, 17, &c.*" is to prove, by a new rendering of the original, that by the command, utterly to destroy the *Chanaanites*, was meant, "neither more nor less, than a complete victory, a perfect subjection of the enemy, a deprivation of all power and establishment, a destruction of idolatry, and a general dispersion of the idolaters."

laters." But we cannot compliment him so far as to say that he has, according to his own pretensions, "incontrovertibly" established his novel interpretation, or that his logical, any more than his critical talents, will derive honour from the present performance. We are sorry to add, that Mr. Benjoin's pages bear disgusting marks of vanity and self-conceit, and of illiberality, particularly towards Dr. Geddes, an eminent and distinguished scholar; for which, even a superabundant admixture of genuine learning, just criticism, and resolute argument, would not have afforded any apology.

The "Translation of the New Testament, from the original Greek, humbly attempted by Nathaniel Scarlett, assisted by Men of Piety and Literature, with Notes," reflects honour on the intention of the parties concerned, and in its execution does credit to their inquiries, and their attention to the idiom of the Greek and English languages. In numerous instances it is more faithful to the sense of the original than our common version: and if those, who are conversant in scripture criticism, will not derive much assistance from it, the unlearned reader will find it of use in studying the meaning of the New Testament. Our common translation has very properly been made the basis of the present: but the plan of the latter differs from the former in that it is not broken into verses, the numbers of which only are retained in the margin, and that the subject is marked at the head of each paragraph. These alterations are judicious.

Mr. Bryant, in a treatise entitled "the Sentiments of Philo Judæus concerning the *Logos* or Word of God, together with large Extracts

from his Writings, compared with the Scriptures, &c." endeavours to prove, that Philo entertained a favourable opinion of the gospel; that he obtained the knowledge of many essential doctrines from the evangelists and apostles themselves; and that he promulgated the orthodox doctrine respecting the divinity and personality of the Logos. These deductions he conceives himself warranted in drawing from a variety of passages which he has collected, and on which he has commented with much learned labour in the work before us. He likewise is of opinion, that they afford a strong argument in support of the truth of Christianity. Greatly as we respect the learning and abilities of Mr. Bryant, and applaud the motive which gave birth to this publication, we cannot pronounce that he has satisfactorily established his leading points. In his Excerptions, the opinions and the language of the Platonists, and of the Jewish Rabbis, will frequently attract the reader's notice: but that they discover any of the peculiar doctrines of Christianity, and offer convincing evidence, "that every article which the sacred writers have given to Christ in his mediatorial capacity, Philo has attributed to him in his divine character, antecedent to creation," is what we conceive the great majority of the author's learned readers will not admit.

Mr. Maurice's "Sancreet Fragments; or interesting Extracts from the sacred Books of the Brahmins, &c." we notice in this place, on account of the subject on which the first part of this little work is employed. It presents us with several traditions from the Sancreet writings, which, the editor contends, confirm, in the most complete

plete and satisfactory manner, the truth and originality of the Mosaic records. And we think that the impartial reader will allow, that at least one of the stories which he has selected, that of Satyavrata and his three sons, although disfigured by the additions of the oriental mythologists, is manifestly copied from the History of Noah. The second part of this work consists of a communication from colonel Vallancey, on the subject of British antiquities, and will fall under our notice in another department of our present volume.

The "Arguments illustrative of the Ground and Credibility of the Christian Religion," are the substance of a course of sermons, preached at the Bampton lecture, in the year 1788, by Dr. Saepperd, archdeacon of Bedford, which were introduced to our readers in our Register for the year 1789. They consist of a series of distinct propositions, divested, as the author informs us, "of all metaphysical and abstruse arguments, and contracted within the shortest limits, in which the plainest reasonings on the subject could be comprised, with a view to render the notice of it as extensive as may be, and thereby, in some degree, to counteract the ill effects of those mischievous publications, which have of late been industriously circulated from the bold school of Mr. Paine, and the more insidious one of Dr. Priestley." With what degree of liberality or justice the two last mentioned characters are associated together among the adversaries of Christianity, we leave it to the public to decide. Dr. Shepherd's arguments, although sensible and weighty, are too concise, and in their form too unimpressive for the purpose of general utility.

Mr. Simpson's "Thoughts on

the Novelty, Excellence, and Evidence of the Christian Religion," form a valuable and useful publication, which well deserves the notice of serious and thinking unbelievers. Without indulging too opprobrious reflections on the adversaries of Christianity; without advertg to any topics, concerning which there are disputes among Christians, he has adopted a mode of defence, that is rational, pious, and popular. The heads under which he distributes his arguments and observations are the following: that the religion of Christ is novel in the principle which it teaches us, as the foundation of all duty, that God is our father; that the Christian religion and morals are new, as to their extent, purity, and simplicity; that the character of Jesus as a teacher is entirely new, no other having ever completely exemplified his system; that the motives by which Christianity urges us to a virtuous conduct are singularly cogent and persuasive; that it is new both in the kind and degree of its evidence; that the means employed in its propagation were new, and its speedy and extensive progress under such circumstances unparalleled; and that the effects produced by it are singular and unexampled in the history of religious institutions. We think that the author has done good service to the cause of divine revelation, by his well written and comprehensive tract.

The "concise Selection of the divine Excellencies of Revelation, with a Word of Advice for the Reformation of the Reformer Thomas Paine, &c." appears to have been well meant, and is well written in point of language and temper. If the generally received opinion be well founded, that no small force properly directed, in a good cause,

cause, is ultimately inefficacious, the author may reflect with pleasure that he has contributed his mite towards the success of the best of causes. His political plan for the reconciliation of all contending powers, we leave to the consideration of the parties concerned.

The treatise, entitled "the Resurrection of our Saviour asserted, from an Examination of the Proofs of the Identity of his Character after that Event, in a Letter to the Rev. L. R." we might properly commend in terms similar to those applied to the last mentioned article. To which we would add, that the author appears carefully and candidly to have studied his subject, and that his manual of evidence for the resurrection contains more important matter, and better arranged, than we meet with in many larger treatises.

Mr. Amner's "Considerations on the Doctrines of a Future State, and the Resurrection, as revealed, or supposed to be so, in the Scriptures, on the Inspiration and Authority of Scripture itself, &c." are the evident result of industrious and liberal inquiry, and offer to biblical students a variety of reasonings and remarks which are highly deserving of attention. The subjects discussed most at large are the doctrines of a future state and the resurrection: concerning which he maintains the opinion, that the Mosiac system did not teach, nor the thoughts of the ancient Jews go so far as to the soul's immortality or immortality. On the subject of inspiration, he agrees with those writers who hold, that the books which make up the canon of the Old and New Testament "are not all of them, nor any one of them, perhaps, in all its parts of the same equal and unvaried excellence, and of

the same uniform and high authority, however this notion of them may in general have prevailed." In noticing some peculiarities in St. Paul's Epistles, he contends, that the apostle's doctrine of justification by faith is "the same substantially with our Saviour's doctrine of repentance and remission of sins, only reasoned on and stated in a more elaborate and systematic manner." In Mr. Amner's discussions on the prophecies of Isaiah, Daniel, and St. John, he will frequently be found to differ widely from preceding exegetical writers, and to throw out novel and bold ideas. But the author is not a dogmatist. While he argues with learning and ability, he does not lose sight of candour and modesty; and he appears to have been actuated, while penning these considerations, by an ardent attachment to truth, united to a pious respect to the genuine interests of divine revelation. We wish that he had been a little more attentive to the perspicuity of his style; that he had devoted some time to shortening the length, and correcting the embarrassed construction of many of his sentences.

The "Lectures in Divinity, delivered in the University of Cambridge, by John Hey, D. D. as Norrisian Professor," in 4 vols. have excited considerable attention in the theological world, and have been perused by us with a mixture of pleasure and of pain. They are evidently the result of much labour and reflection, and comprise a vast variety of matter, important and curious, on the numerous subjects which such a plan must necessarily comprehend. From the nature of the work, our readers will easily conceive that our remarks upon it can only be general. The nature of God, the proper method of studying, and

and the evidences of the scriptures, conformity to religious establishments, the thirty-nine articles of the church of England, &c. together with numerous collateral topics, are successively discussed by him; and rules and directions are given for controversy, and references to various authors, from which the student may derive much valuable aid in the prosecution of his theological inquiries. Learning, ingenuity, and candour, are conspicuous throughout the whole, and a pleasing originality both in the author's plan and arguments. Whence then the pain, it may be asked, that we received in the perusal of them? From the laxity of principle, which they encourage with respect to subscription to articles of faith. We wonder not that some of the dignitaries of the church, and the syndics of the university, should have expressed an alarm at the opinions advanced ex cathedra on that subject. To uniformity of sentiment in orthodox belief, we conceive them to be fatally inimical. And, what is in our judgment an infinitely greater evil, they would seem to justify subterfuge and prevarication; and by that means essentially affect the interests of morals. Far, very far are we from imputing such intentions to the author, or from insinuating that he is not a "warm friend to sincerity and simplicity;" that he does not "honour and adore them." But we have greatly misapprehended the scope of his reasoning, if such as we have mentioned be not its tendency, by leading youthful minds "into all the labyrinths of a loose and pernicious casuistry."

The "Lectures on the Nature and End of the Sacred Office, and on the Dignity, Duty, Qualifications, and Character of the Sacred

Order, by John Smith, D. D. one of the Ministers of Cambleton," relate to every branch of the clerical profession, and merit the serious notice of persons who are either candidates for, or have already engaged in it. They are judicious, pious, solemn, and affectionate; and peculiarly seasonable in these times, when a spirit of lukewarmness, or torpid indifference to religion, is too prevalent among all classes in the community.

Mr. Fellowes's "Picture of Christian Philology, or a Theological, Philosophical, and Practical Illustration of the Character of Jesus, &c." is employed in contrasting the genuine Christian temper with the benevolence of Mr. Godwin's system, and Mr. Wilberforce's view of Christian doctrines and morals. It does credit to the author's ingenuity and to his heart; and is not ill adapted "to soften the animosities of faction by the precepts of benevolence, and to inspire even the breasts of bigots with Christian moderation."

The "Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise, entitled, A Practical View of the prevailing Religious System of professed Christians, &c. by Thomas Beilham," must be pronounced, even by those who may not accord with the author in sentiment, to be an able and masterly production. It is conducted in a series of letters to a lady; in which Mr. Wilberforce's system is exhibited with fairness, pursued to its proper consequences, and compared with Christianity as deducible from the plain and unequivocal language of the New Testament. The peculiar doctrines of that religion, as laid down in this review, differ toto cœlo from those of Mr. Wilberforce; and instead of gloomy and forbidding views of the deity and

and of human nature, presents with such as are cheerful, honourable, and alone consistent with the necessary perfections of God, and just moral government. As a polemic Mr. Belsham shews himself intimately acquainted with the subjects which called for his discussion, and as a scripture critic entitled to very respectful notice. On the whole, his Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise may be characterised as containing the opposition of argument to declamation, of clearness and precision in language and ideas to the enthusiastic and indeterminate phraseology of party religionists, and of candour to its contrary quality.

The "Strictures upon the Reply of Mr. A. Fuller to Mr. Kentish's Discourse, entitled 'the Moral Tendency of the Genuine Christian Doctrine,' by the Author of that Discourse," justify our surmise in our last year's Register, that Mr. Fuller's opponents would profess against his pretensions to a complete triumph in the controversy between them. They are written with acuteness, candour, and modesty; and are well calculated "to correct misapprehension, to soften bigotry, to repress confidence, to shew upon what principles and by what standard the question between Calvinists and Unitarians, between Trinitarians and Unitarians, ought to be decided."

Mr. Daubeny, in his "Guide to the Church, in several Discourses, to which are added Two Postscripts, &c." is a zealous supporter of those once exploded doctrines concerning the divine constitution of our national church, the sin of schism, and the proper restraints on freedom of inquiry, against which the most judicious friends and brightest ornaments of the establishment

have declared open hostility, and which have been not unaptly characterised by the term "Protestant Popery." The arguments by which he supports them are such as have been formerly adduced by the high church party: assumption, assertion, and solemn warnings to piously disposed persons against resisting properly constituted authority, and the artifices of the grand deceiver. The language in which these arguments are conveyed is easy, mild, and conciliating. Of Mr. Daubeny's postscripts, the first is addressed to those members of the church, who occasionally frequent other places of public worship, and admonishes them of the inconsistency and fatal consequences of their conduct. In his second postscript, which is addressed to the clergy, the author enters into an able defence of the generality of that body, against the severe strictures of Mr. Wilberforce; and justly reprehends those individuals who profess to maintain their connection with the church, and even to be its purest ministers, while they assume the privilege of withdrawing, ad libitum, from episcopal jurisdiction, and of dispensing with canonical obligation.

Sir Richard Hill, in his "Apology for Brotherly Love, and for the Doctrines of the Church of England, in a Series of Letters to the Rev. C. Daubeny, &c." in the character of an admirer of the discipline of that church, and the form of its establishment, retorts the charge of schism against Mr. Daubeny, for maintaining that Arminian sense of the thirty-nine articles, which he contends to be at variance with genuine orthodoxy. He, likewise, in a lively, but eccentric manner, impugns the validity of Mr. Daubeny's reasoning respecting

respecting the divine ordination or appointment of the officers of the church, and the regularity of their succession from the apostolic age, and expresses his warm approbation of the labours of divers unhallowed instructors. From a Calvinistic dissenter our champion might have expected such an attack, and such praises of conventicles; but not from a true son of the church. Mr. Daubeny must, doubtless, pronounce him to be of that amphibious character proscribed in the postscripts to his *Guide*: and we do not see how the baronet's ingenuity will repel the imputation.

The author of "*Reflections on the Clergy of the Established Church*" is a zealous advocate for the utility of that order, and the undisturbed maintenance of that property by which it is legally supported. But he is not satisfied with the general mode and spirit with which their professional exertions are directed. Notwithstanding that he evidently wishes them to approximate more nearly in their pulpit addresses, and in their intercourse with their flocks, to what is commonly called the methodistical character, he intermixes, nevertheless, with his remarks and observations, some animadversions which are not undeserving the notice of serious clergymen of all denominations.

The "*Layman's Address to the Clergy of England, by a Friend to the Church Establishment*," partakes more of an economical than of a theological complexion; and, among some just strictures on non-residence, pluralities, the removals of the prebendal clergy, and the translation of bishops, suggests good hints for ameliorating the condition of the laborious clergy, and for rendering it more respectable as well as more useful.

In our Register for the year 1795, we introduced to our readers Mr. Churton's "*Short Defence of the Church of England, in Answer to those from whom we separate, and to those who separate from us*." During the present year, a catholic layman, Francis Eyre, of Warkworth, Esq. has published "*a Reply to the Rev. R. Churton*," which displays considerable learning and ingenuity, and no small store of theological knowledge. When the author assails Mr. Churton on the subject of deriving the church of England's "*clerical office and authority, by an unbroken chain of bishops similarly appointed from those who were constituted by the apostles, as the apostles were by Christ himself*," he proves completely triumphant. And we think that our readers, whatever may be their judgment of this reply on the whole, will join with us in deducing from it this conclusion, that if the schism by which our national church was rent from the papal one be defensible at all, it must be on the ground of the right of private judgment.

The "*Essay on Universal Redemption, tending to prove that the general Sense of Scripture favours the Opinion of the final Salvation of all Mankind*," by the Rev. John Brown, M. A. late of Sydney Sussex College, Cambridge," deserves to be commended for the learning, benevolence, and calm deliberate discussion which distinguish it, and render it worthy of the serious notice of the advocates for the doctrine of the eternity of future punishments. After contending, with no small degree of force, that the original word which in our translation is rendered everlasting, evidently relates to a finite duration, the author proceeds to bring

bring forward the usual arguments in favour of his hypothesis, which he manages with considerable dexterity, and delivers in an easy and pleasing style. We have not before seen them so advantageously produced within the compass of a small pamphlet.

The treatise, entitled "Virtue's Friend; consisting of Essays first published periodically, on Subjects connected with the Duty and Happiness of Mankind," is a valuable little work, which we heartily recommend to the perusal of our younger readers. It is composed of various pleasing essays, and striking stories, admirably adapted "to oppose the pure attractions of conscious virtue to the fascinating allurements of vicious pleasure; to inspire an ardent passion for all that is noble, great, and excellent; to rouse men to emulation in useful and laudable pursuits; above all, to repress the malice of parties, allay those unhappy animosities that tear and distract society, and to introduce throughout the calm of mutual forbearance, the sweets of social harmony, and the infant joys of a self approving mind."

"Moral Contrasts, on the Power of Religion, exemplified under different Characters," by William Gilpin, Prebendary of Salisbury, is another useful present to young readers in general, and particularly to those in the higher orders of society, by a writer whose labours have often pleased and benefited the public. The characters delineated are partly fictitious, and partly real, and afford some profitable introduction of moral remarks and impressive advice, in depicting their peculiarities, and contrasting their different virtues and vices. The real characters are not more gay and licentious, but more judicious

and pious, John Wilmot, Earl of Rochester, and the young African prince Naimbanna, who was brought to England by the Sierra Leone company, to be educated and instructed in the principles of the Christian religion: both highly interesting, and the latter very extraordinary.

Mr. King's "Remarks on the Signs of the Times," were published with a view to impress the conviction, that recent discoveries in natural history and philosophy, and the political events which have lately taken place on the European continent, have literally accomplished some of the obscure and emblematical scripture prophecies; and to justify his interpretation of the pouring out of the seventh vial, mentioned in the book of Revelation, given in his "Morfels of Criticism," which we announced in our Register for the year 1788. In pursuance of his object, he enters into a particular and critical examination of Rev. xvi. 17—21; and maintains, that in that portion of the prophetic writings, the new doctrines which are at present propagated, the division of Poland, and the final ruin of the papal power in the year 1798, now appear to be clearly prefigured. However fanciful some part of the author's interpretation may seem, others are very striking, and offer some remarkable coincidences to the thinking reader. Mr. King's observations towards the conclusion of his treatise, on some passages in the second book of Esdras, might have been omitted without any injury to his design, since there are very few in the Christian world who will allow any authenticity to that apocryphal production.

Of the nature, value, and scarcity of Calmet's "Dictionary of the

the Holy Bible," our theological readers are too well apprised, to render it necessary for us to enlarge on those topics. But they may not in general know, that a new, and greatly improved edition of that work is publishing, in 4to. in parts or numbers; which it would be improper entirely to overlook in this place, on account of the learning and judgment with which it is conducted. Seven of those parts we have already seen; and from the manner in which they are executed are led to augur very favourably of the completion of the editor's plan.

On examining the volumes of sermons which made their appearance during the year 1798, the greater part will be found to be posthumous publications. In this number are the "Sermons, chiefly upon Practical Subjects, by the Rev. Samuel Bishop, A. M. late Head Master of Merchant Taylors' School." Mr. Clare, the author's intimate friend, and the editor of his poetical works, noticed in our Register for the year 1796, has superintended the publication of this volume, to which he has prefixed a brief character of the compositions which it contains. Without determining whether the occasional peculiarities with respect to turn of thought, and mode of expression, by which they are marked, betoken native genius, or constitute any degree of excellence, we have no objection, on the whole, to observe with the editor, that "they are plain and practical; contain just and pious sentiments, expressed in a manly and forcible style; and breathe the genuine spirit of candour and christian charity."

The "Sermons on various Subjects, by the late B. C. Bowden, of Emanuel College, Cambridge, and Minister of the English Episcopal

Church at Amsterdam," do not appear to have been "composed with any farther views, than the instruction and edification of the audience to which they were delivered." There are, however, very few collections of modern pulpit discourses which, considered in all points of view, possess claims to superior excellence. The subjects of them are chiefly practical; and the sentiments which they inculcate, uniformly pious, rational, and benevolent. And if their style may not have been cultivated "with a peculiar and exaggerated solicitude," it is generally correct, always sufficiently plain and perspicuous, and frequently elegant.

The two volumes of "Sermons by the late Rev. David Jarline, of Bath, published from the original Manuscripts, by the Rev. John Prior Estlin," are also entitled to a considerable share of praise, whether we respect the matter which they contain, or the manner in which it is delivered. The former is, chiefly, moral and devotional; and, in general, enforces such just and useful sentiments and feelings, as are adapted to inform the mind, and mend the heart. And with the exception of a few passages, in which the author's peculiarities of sentiment as an unitarian and a disciple of the Hibernian school are discoverable, rational christians, whether of the orthodox or heterodox class, may alike read them with pleasure and improvement. The style of these sermons is manly, perspicuous, and easy.

The two volumes of "Sermons on Practical Subjects, by the late W. Estlin, LL.D. prepared for the Press by himself," will prove a very acceptable present to the public. On the author's merits in this respect, we writing this have already stated.

decided, by the favourable reception given to his English Preacher, and Biographical Sermons. His clear and persuasive reasoning, pertinency of remark on all topics, liberality and candour of sentiment, and "chaste, clear, correct style, free from all affectation and singularity," deservedly classed him among the most pleasing and useful of public instructors. Moral topics have been chiefly selected for these volumes; and the perusal of them, we doubt not, will justify the editor's criticism, "that scarcely any writer has entered with more delicacy into the minute and less obvious points of morality—has more skilfully marked out the nice discriminations of virtue and vice, of the fit and unfit. He has not only delineated the path of the strictly right, but of the amiable and becoming. He has aimed at rendering mankind not only mutually serviceable, but mutually agreeable; and has delighted in painting true goodness with all those colours which it was said of old would make her so enchanting should she ever become visible to mortal eyes." Prefixed to these volumes are *Memoirs of the Author*, by Dr. Aikin, which we have inserted among our biographical anecdotes and characters.

The two volumes of "Sermons preached to Parochial Congregations, by the late Rev. Richard Southgate, B. A." afford sufficient evidence of the author's orthodoxy and piety, and of his commendable zeal and diligence in promoting the glory of God, and the edification of his hearers. They contain much useful and instructive matter, delivered in plain, but affectionate language. The author, however, has too frequently given to his composition an uncouth and dis-

jointed appearance, and he must sometimes have weakened the force of his addresses, by an apparently constant study of sententiousness. A perpetual succession of minute, and almost independent parts in a discourse, like apophthegm crowding on apophthegm, embarrasses in the closet, and must bewilder from the pulpit. We should, likewise, have been better satisfied, if the editor of these sermons had expunged from them all allusions to temporary politics. In the first volume we are presented with a biographical preface by Dr. Gaskin, which is highly, and, we have no reason to doubt, justly encomiastic.

The volume entitled "the Objections of Infidel Historians and other Writers against Christianity, considered in Eight Sermons, preached at the Bampton Lecture, at Oxford, in the year 1797, &c. by W. Finch, LL.D. &c." offers little that is new or very interesting on the subject of the evidences of our religion. Nor is the author eminently successful in the elucidation of other topics, which he has connected with his main object, and, in particular, the proper limitations of temporal and spiritual power. The following remarks do not breathe much of the spirit of that stern unbending virtue, which many have supposed to be enjoined by the apostolical maxim, that "we ought to obey God rather than men," in all cases which affect conscience and duty. "True, the voice of law, wherever it resides, must be obeyed; but if its declarations be subversive of generally acknowledged duties, or should it preposterously countenance degrading and destructive vices, though an outward obedience might be paid to it, yet will it not fail of exciting inward repugnance. No; the statutes

tutes of any nation may enjoin things indifferent to religion; but if they contradict or oppose it, a ready and sincere obedience will scarce be paid to them."

The "Sermons on various Subjects, more particularly on Christian Faith and Hope, and the Consolations of Religion, by George Henry Glasse, M. A. &c." cannot be pronounced, any more than those noticed in the preceding article, models of true pulpit eloquence. They are light, declamatory compositions; in the texture of which is interwoven a great variety of scriptural quotations, not always apposite, and seldom illustrated and explained. When the author occasionally engages in theological controversy, his efforts are not eminently advantageous to the cause which he maintains, nor do they reflect much honour on his own skill or temper. In the soundness of his faith, indeed, and the warmth of his zeal, he is not in the least deficient; but the evidence of the former is not unmingled with dogmatism, nor that of the latter with at least harsh language applied to heretical and political sinners.

The "Naval Sermons, preached on board his Majesty's Ship the *Impetueux*, in the Western Squadron, during its Services off Brest, &c. by James Stanier Clarke, F. R. S. &c." are sensible, and well written; on such subjects as gave the preacher favourable opportunities of expatiating on scenes and circumstances familiar to the seaman's eye, and with the matter of them, for the most part, judiciously adapted to the audience before whom they were delivered. The praises which the author bestows on the British constitution and government, and his admonitory exhorta-

tions, occasioned by the storms that are agitating the political scene, are poured forth in animated strains of loyalty.

The "Four Sermons, preached in London, at the third General Meeting of the Missionary Society, May 10, 11, 12, 1797," by different gentlemen, are pious and well intended, and would, doubtless, prove acceptable to the audiences to whose sentiments and views they were more immediately adapted. From the proceedings of the meeting, and the report of the directors, which are prefixed, the reader will find reason to applaud the zeal and spirit with which the society prosecute the object of their institution, whatever may be his opinion respecting their design in general, or the wisdom and expediency of the peculiar plan which they have embraced, for attaining the end in view.

The "Additional Evidences of the Truth of Christianity, in two Visitation Sermons, by George Law, M. A. Prebendary of Carlisle," if they do not present us with any new matter on the subject, as the title would import, combine and dispose, in a new and more striking point of view, arguments which have not been entirely overlooked by preceding writers. The prophecy of Christ, that John should not die till he came, or before the destruction of Jerusalem, that event, and the mistakes of the apostles respecting it, engaged the preacher's attention, and gave him the opportunity of introducing some important observations, and liberal sentiments and remarks, which certainly were well worthy of being laid before the public.

Mr. Houghton's two Sermons, entitled, "Observations on the Evidences of Christ's Resurrection, the principal Objections consider-

ed, and the Divine Origin of the Christian Religion clearly proved," form a judicious and pleasing epitome of the arguments for the grand fact on which the truth of Christianity rests, intended chiefly for the use of young persons. They are recommended by logical precision, perspicuity of style, and simplicity of language; and will be found an useful introduction to those larger and more important treatises, which the author points out to the notice of his readers.

From the mass of single sermons published during the year 1798, we must unavoidably be very restricted in our selection. In the "Sermon preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, before his Majesty, and both Houses of Parliament, on Tuesday, Dec. 19, 1797, by George, Lord Bishop of Lincoln," the reader will perceive a striking similarity between his lordship's sentiments, and those of many modern interpreters of the mystical books of Scripture, who assert, that the prophecies contain express predictions of the events which have lately taken place, and are now taking place in Europe; and that the French people are the instrument, in the hands of Heaven, of punishing those nations which have been the chief supporters of antichristian tyranny and delusion. But he indulges the hope and expectation that this country will escape any weighty share of the terrible visitation; that some "inherent qualities in the establishments of this kingdom in church and state, which raise the virtues and glory of this nation above the rest of Europe," will prove the cause of warding off, or abating the portentous storm. In every devout and humble prayer to the Great Disposer of Events, that

the angel who "drives the furious blast" may be directed to spare their native land, thousands of Britons will most fervently join, who possess less faith and hope than the good prelate. As one ground of his hope, his lordship observes, in a strain of exultation, that "while our enemies have insulted the Majesty of Heaven, we have humbled ourselves before our God, and acknowledged our transgressions; while they have impiously denied his all-controlling power, we have prayed unto the Lord to give wisdom to our councils, success to our arms, and steadiness to our people." Does not this language favour too much of that boasting, which is excluded?

The "Sermon preached at the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Thursday, November 29, 1798, being the Day appointed for a Public Thanksgiving," contains pious and animated exhortations to national gratitude, on account of the advantages, religious, civil, and political, by which a merciful superintending Providence has signally distinguished this country; solemn admonitions against either relapsing into the corruptions of popery, from which we were rescued by the Reformation, or degenerating into scepticism and atheism; and invitations to serious enquiry, how far we have deserved our providential distinctions; that our unexampled successes may not "dazzle us into a false estimate of our own virtues, nor prompt us to conclude, that we have a prescriptive right to the protecting favour of Heaven." The political language and sentiments which occur in this sermon, with the exception of a few vituperative expressions, and some assertions, to which

which those who are subjected by existing laws to civil disqualifications cannot assent, will prove unobjectionable to the disciples of the moderate Whig school.

Our necessary limits will permit us only to insert the titles of the following Thanksgiving Discourses, which excited a greater share of general attention than the mass composing the long list from which they are selected: "a Sermon preached before the Honourable House of Commons, on the 29th of November, 1798, at the Church of St. Margaret, Westminster, &c. by Thomas Rennel, D. D. Master of the Temple;" "Motives for Public Thanksgiving, stated and enforced, a Sermon preached at the Foundling Hospital, November 29, 1798, &c. by the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D. Morning Preacher to the said Charity;" and "the Privileges of Britain, a Sermon, preached at the Meeting House in the Old Jewry, on Thursday the 29th of November, 1798, &c. by Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S."

"Rome is Fallen! a Sermon, preached at the Visitation, held at Scarborough, June 5, 1798, by Francis Wrangham, M. A.," is one of the most able, animated, and interesting conciones ad clerum, that we remember ever to have seen. While the author detests and execrates the enormities perpetrated by the rulers of the French republic, or their agents, with manliness and openness he avows his satisfaction at the accomplishment of the prophecies, of which they have been the instruments, and particularly that respecting the destruction of the papal domination. Instead of losing sight of his principles as a protestant, and deploring, with some of his brethren, the catastrophe which

has now taken place, and without "ungenerously triumphing over an old man's distresses," he rejoices "to see the sovereign pontiff a fugitive and a vagabond;" he exults "to behold him, who once trod upon the necks of monarchs, crouching himself beneath the insolent foot of a ferocious and implacable republic." And he asks, "what protestant does not rejoice to hear that those thunders at length are silent, which issued, during so long a period, from the gloomy recesses of the Vatican, to convulse Europe; shaking the allegiance of subjects, and 'hurling princes from their thrones!' what lover of peace does not exult, to learn that those lightnings, which so often blasted the olive of Christendom, are quenched for ever! Ought we, who should anxiously wish the prophecies fulfilled, to weep over their accomplishment?" To justify this exultation on the fall of Rome, he enters into a striking and eloquent delineation of the pernicious tenets, and nefarious practices of the Vatican; and afterwards applies the subject of his discourse to the more immediate purpose of the meeting before which it was delivered. In this part of his plan, Mr. Wrangham has presented his brethren of the clergy with much important advice and serious pertinent admonition; and he has enriched the whole with a variety of learned and valuable notes.

In the Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Landaff, in June 1798, by R. Watfon, D.D. F.R.S." Bishop of Landaff, the author appears chiefly in a political character. In warm and indignant terms he reprobates French principles, and French practice; exhorts his clergy to second his efforts in exciting the public alarm and

jealousy, by admonitions and instructions to their flocks, in which, without a breach of Christian charity, they may use *harsh* language when painting French enormities; speaks of a parliamentary reform as in some measure desirable, but as what ought not to be attempted, or adopted, in the present crisis of the fate of the nation; and combats the doctrines of the "Rights of Man, and Liberty and Equality," in the sense which the most ignorant or designing political declaimers have affixed to those terms. This we should not have expected from Dr. Watson. In that part of the bishop's Charge, which is theological, he principally dwells on the importance of the clergy's being on their guard "against certain wicked teachers, who are creeping in among the common people, and attempting, by profane writings and evil communication, to unchristianize the world;" and he urges them, by calling to their recollection the engagement which they entered into when they were ordained priests, "to be ready with all faithful diligence to banish and drive away all erroneous and strange doctrines, contrary to God's word," to make resistance to those subverters of the Christian faith, that the ignorant may not be misled by their sophisms, and the difficulty of saving the souls committed to their care augmented, by vicious practice being built upon false principle. One remark, towards the conclusion of the Charge, merits serious notice: "that there certainly is room for enquiry, whether all protestant churches are so pure in doctrine, so perfect in discipline, so truly Christian in practice, as to have nothing to fear for themselves from the fall of the church of Rome."

Under the head of Philosophy and Ethics we meet with "Elements of the Critical Philosophy, containing a concise Account of its Origin and Tendency, a View of all the Works published by its Founder, &c. by A. F. M. Willich, M. D." which, like Mr. Nitsch's work, noticed in this department of our Register for the year 1796, is intended to excite the attention of the English reader to the writings, and to assist him in forming an acquaintance with the philosophy of Immanuel Kant. After an introduction, in which our author gives an account of the several systems of philosophy which prevailed successively in Germany, from the time of Wolf to the present period, and of the sentiments of professor Kant concerning the philosophy of Hume and his opponents, together with a general outline of that philosopher's "Critique of Pure Reason," he proceeds to lay before us a synopsis of the Kantian System. This synopsis consists of a solution of five connected problems, which our limits will not permit us to insert; and a brief abstract of the most important of the professor's works. To the synopsis succeeds a glossary, intended to explain the terms employed by Kant. Whatever share of industry, ingenuity, and learning we may be willing to award to Dr. Willich, we cannot say that, even with his aids, we have been enabled to penetrate through the obscurity which, to our intellect, still envelopes the principles of his favourite philosophy. In one of our most respectable periodical journals, his doctrine has been termed, "an attempt to teach the sceptical philosophy of Hume, in the disgusting dialect of scholasticism." As far as we are capable of comprehending it, we have not met with
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any definition of the new system, which appears to us be more appropriate. Subjoined to the Kantian papers in this volume are three philological essays, chiefly translated from professor Ädelung, with notes. The first of these contains a concise History of the English Language; the second a Philological View of the English Language; and the third, an Enquiry into the Merits and Demerits of Johnson's English Dictionary. These essays are interesting to the philosopher, as well as the philologist and antiquary, and will be found useful to English students in investigating the rationale of their native tongue.

The "essay on the Principle of Population, as it affects the future Improvement of Society, with Remarks on the Speculations of Mr. Godwin, Mons. Condorcet, and other writers," is the production of an able and reflecting mind, and written with such precision, philosophical calmness, and unvaried candour, as are adapted strongly to interest the attention of the reader. The opinions which he undertakes to controvert in the systems of Condorcet and Godwin are the perfectability of man, with the protraction of his existence in this world to immortality, and that scheme of equality which pretends to banish selfishness and vice, to render labour almost unnecessary, and ultimately to extinguish even the passion between the sexes. The arguments which our author opposes to their hypotheses are deduced from the principle of population; and are managed with such ingenuity and vigour, as render them in our judgment unanswerable. They are included under the discussion of the following simple propositions: 1. That population cannot increase without the means

of subsistence, is a proposition so evident, that it needs no illustration; 2. That population does invariably increase, where there are the means of subsistence, the history of every people that have ever existed will abundantly prove; 3. That the superior power of population cannot be checked, without producing misery or vice, the ample portion of these too bitter ingredients in the cup of human life, and the continuance of the physical causes, that seem to have produced them, bear too convincing a testimony. To trace our author through his illustration of these propositions, and the application of it to the leading principles, or the subordinate parts of the systems of Messrs. Condorcet and Godwin, is beyond our province. But we can promise our readers much pleasure from such an undertaking, whether they agree with us or not respecting the conclusiveness of his reasoning. In the latter part of his work the author advances certain notions which many will pronounce to be no less fanciful than the hypotheses of his opponents. Such are his sentiments, that the moral situation of man in this world is not a state of trial, according to the common acceptance of that expression, but "the mighty process of God for the creation and formation of mind, necessary to awaken chaotic matter into spirit, to sublimate the dust of the earth into soul, &c;" and that "those beings which come out of the process of the world in lovely and beautiful forms, shall be crowned with immortality, while those who come out misshapen, those whose minds are not suited to a purer and happier state of existence, shall perish, and be condemned to mix again with their original clay."

The treatise entitled "Modern Philosophy and Barbarism, or a Comparison between the Theory of Godwin and the Practice of Lycurgus, &c. by W. C. Proby," is a sensible and animated little work, in which the author attempts "to prove the identity of the two systems, and the injurious consequences which must result to mankind from the principles of modern philosophy carried into practice." But notwithstanding the ingenuity which Mr. Proby discovers, we cannot say that he has succeeded in establishing the similitude between the institutions of the Spartan lawgiver, and the system of the author of "Political Justice," even after every due allowance is made for "the difference of situation, the distance between the periods in which both systems were engendered, and the consequent superiority of knowledge and information possessed by the latter." In exposing, however, the consequences to mankind which would result from the Godwinean principles being carried into execution in their full extent, our author's talents appear to considerable advantage. And the advocates for those principles will not find it an easy task, to repel any of the serious and weighty charges which he has preferred against them.

The next article which we have to present to our readers, belongs partly to the department of Philosophy, and partly to that of Government and Legislation. It is "Aristotle's Ethics and Politics, comprising his Practical Philosophy, translated from the Greek, &c. by John Gillies, LL.D. F. A. S. &c." in 2 vols. 4to. On the merits of Aristotle, the most universal scholar of ancient times, who "daringly invaded the whole empire of phi-

losophy," and, under "the comprehensive divisions of the heavens and the earth, things, human and divine, God, man, and nature," left to posterity very valuable treasures among "the different articles of his truly philosophical encyclopædia," it would be superfluous to expatiate in this place. But it has been the fate of his writings, that while some parts of them have been properly excluded from the schools, "being superseded by more accurate and complete information," others, which "still merit the most serious attention of the modern reader," have been suffered to fall into similar disuse, and to moulder away in the dust of our libraries. Dr. Gillies's design, in undertaking this translation, was to revive the public attention to the labours of the Stagirite, and to "vindicate his fair claim to be regarded as one of the best instructors of mankind on the important subjects of ethics and politics." Without descending to particulars, we shall briefly apprise our readers of the contents of the volumes before us. The first volume comprehends the life of Aristotle, compiled from Laertius, Ammonius, Diodorus Siculus, and other ancient writers; a new and very valuable analysis of his speculative works, illustrated with notes; and the translation of his ethics, in ten books. To each book is prefixed an introduction, by the translator, containing a kind of syllabus of its general argument, together with illustrative remarks and observations. The second volume contains Dr. Gillies's translation of Aristotle's Politics, in eight books, with introductions and notes to each; and an appendix to the second book, presenting us with the interesting account of the republic of St. Marino,

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rino, which we inserted among the selections in our Register for the year 1795, enlarged and confirmed by original documents from the archives of the republic. On the introductions to the books into which the "incomparable work" in this second volume is divided, Dr. Gillies has bestowed very considerable attention. They may be characterised as so many distinct political or economical dissertations; concerning which we may remark, while we are very far from assenting to the author's political creed, that they contain much interesting and useful matter, for which the public, and especially politicians and statesmen, are greatly indebted to him. As a translation, this work is free and paraphrastical, and it is clothed in a style which is in general correct, energetic, perspicuous, and elegant.

The few remaining productions of the year 1798, which properly call for notice in this department of our literary catalogue, belong to the heads of Finance, Political Economy, and Law.

The two volumes, entitled "the State of the Nation with respect to its Public funded Debt, Revenue, and Disbursement, comprised in the Reports of the Select Committee of Finance, appointed by the House of Commons to examine and state the total Amount of the Public Debts, and of the Interest and Charges attending the same, as they stood the 5th of January, 1797, &c." contain a vast variety of important matter, judiciously arranged, for which the public is under great obligation to the secret committee. They are, indeed, highly necessary to every person who would wish to form an accurate judgment of our financial situation, and of the con-

stitution and management of our public offices; and they lay open such curious facts, as cannot fail to convince the most incredulous of the multitudinous abuses in the establishments of the state, which loudly call for a reform. To each report is annexed an appendix, containing the official documents, and the other evidence on which it is founded.

"The Reports from the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Finance, as presented to that House, containing an Account of the Public funded Debt, Taxes, unfunded Debt, &c. ordered to be printed the 31st of March, 1797," form another useful publication, of the same nature with the preceding, but less comprehensive, and consequently less satisfactory.

The author of "Hints towards an improved System of Taxation, extending to all in exact proportion to their Property, and without any kind of investigation or disclosure of their Circumstances, &c." has little of novelty in the objects which he recommends to the fostering care of our grand financial nurse. An additional equal tax on all lands, at the present rental; on houses, at a reduced rental; and taxes on tythes, shipping, stock in trade, manufactures, &c. regulated by the interest on the capital employed; on all money vested on real or personal securities; on the public funds; on salaries exceeding a given amount; and on all lucrative professions and employments, compose the features of his plan. But we are incapable of conceiving how these objects can be submitted to a proportional imposition, without an universal and particular disclosure of circumstances. That the author has no participation in what some writers have termed the ini-

quity of banking, we may infer from his proposition, that all individuals should be prohibited from engaging in that species of commerce.

The Country Gentleman's "Plan for Redeeming Two Hundred and Thirty Millions of the Three per Cent. Funds, and for improving the Public Revenue more than Three Hundred and Forty-two Thousand Pounds a Year, without raising any new Taxes, and without diminishing the Income of any Person," is not entirely undeserving of consideration, notwithstanding that some parts of it may be objectionable, and the author's calculations appear extravagant. His financial proposals have at least the merit of neither increasing the present public burthens, nor affecting the interests of hereditary proprietors. They include the sale of the present land-tax, which has been already determined by parliament; the sale of the crown-lands, as the grants expire; the sale of the tythes of the church, and of the estates held by leases under the church, but without depriving the clergy of the full amount of what they now receive from them; and the conversion of copyholds into freeholds, on a plan which might prove beneficial both to the lessor and the lessee. How the adoption of such measures is to produce the effect mentioned in the title page, the treatise itself will best explain.

The "New Inquiry into the Principles and Policy of Taxation, in the Political System of Great Britain," is the production of a well-informed and judicious writer, who employs himself in defending the minister's obnoxious act for the heavy increase of the assessed taxes. But its merits are greater as a political than as a financial production.

The concluding sentence of our preceding article is applicable to "a Plan for raising the Taxes impartially, and almost free of Expence in War, &c. by Francis Adams, Esq. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace, and Deputy Lieutenant for the County of Somerset," and to "a Letter on Finance, &c. by John Charnock, jun." Mr. Adams, however, is inimical to the increase of the assessed taxes; instead of which he recommends a tax on income, and offers tables and calculations for its regulation. And if the statement, on which some of the most important of Mr. Charnock's speculations are founded, be accurate; viz. that the property of this country is worth four thousand millions, the chancellor of the exchequer was either unfortunate in his inquiries, or uncommonly modest in his calculation of the income of the kingdom, in the speech announcing his new plan of finance, delivered on the 3d of December, in the present year.

The authors of "Thoughts on Taxation, in the course of which the Policy of a Tax on Income is impartially investigated," and of "Observations on the Taxation of Property," discuss the principle of the new system with no inconsiderable share of dexterity. The former undertakes its defence, and to answer the objections, general or particular, which are commonly urged against it. The latter condemns it, and is an advocate for a direct tax on property; contending that all other taxes are penalties "upon certain modes of enjoying property: which, if those modes are as harmless as others not taxed, is a palpable injustice."

The "Thoughts on a New Coinage of Silver, more especially as it relates to an Alteration in the Division

sion of the Pound Troy, by a Banker," are the result of attentive and interesting research, and merit the serious consideration of government. It has been understood, that our rulers have it in contemplation to divide the pound troy of silver, in future, into sixty-five or sixty-six, instead of sixty-two shillings; conceiving, that by such an alteration in the standard of our silver specie, they shall adopt the most efficacious mode of checking the coinage and circulation of base money, besides securing a very considerable profit to the treasury. Against the adoption of such a project, our author offers a variety of dispassionate and cogent arguments. His treatise is divided into four parts, containing a brief account of the state of the coin during some preceding reigns; the ways in which the standard may be altered, with the consequences that will arise from a debasement of it; the alteration of the standard of silver considered as operating generally on all coin; and a conclusion, in which he deprecates all alteration. In his remarks and reasonings, under these divisions, he discovers extensive information and much sagacious policy, together with zeal for the true interests of a government to which he seems ardently attached. And, upon the whole, we conceive, that he has not only shewn the danger but the injustice of the measure which he opposes; a measure which would ultimately most sensibly affect the value of all species of property, whether landed, monied, or commercial.

Mr. Wallace's "Essay on the Manufactures of Ireland, &c." was sent by him to the royal Irish academy, in consequence of an advertisement from that body, offering a premium of fifty pounds for the

best dissertation on the question, "To what manufactures are the natural advantages of Ireland best suited, and what are the best modes of improving such manufactures?" Unfortunately for the author, the committee of three members, appointed to determine on the merits of the respective candidates, was not wholly uninterested in the decision. For one of those members was a competitor for the prize!! and to his production were the solid honours of triumph awarded. Mr. Wallace, dissatisfied with the verdict of a tribunal so constituted, has thought fit to appeal to the judgment of the public. And we must at least acknowledge, that his essay abounds in judicious discussion and valuable information, from which the political economist may derive both entertainment and instruction. In examining the comparative value of manufactures and agriculture, in a national view, he decides differently from Dr. Adam Smith, who maintained, that the capital employed in agriculture adds a greater value to the annual produce of the country than an equal capital employed in manufactures. In the greater part of his principles, however, he coincides in opinion with that philosopher; and sometimes, perhaps, may appear to have admitted them too implicitly. This work is divided into two parts. In the first part, Mr. Wallace examines and answers the arguments adduced to prove agriculture to be more profitable to the community than manufactures; and afterwards enlarges on the encouragement due to the latter; the species of manufactures which demand a preference; machinery; the relative advantages of a home and a foreign market; the manufactures already in part established; and the indu-
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ence of manufactures on morality and health. The second part contains the application of the principles laid down in the preceding, to the peculiar circumstances and situation of Ireland. Many curious and interesting particulars occur in this part, relative to the state of industry in our sister kingdom.

In our last year's Register we noticed, in terms of approbation, a treatise, entitled "the Essential Principles of the Wealth of Nations, illustrated in opposition to some false Doctrines of Adam Smith, and others." During the present year the ingenious author has published a little work, which he wishes to be considered as a supplement to that treatise. It is entitled "a Proposal for supplying London with Bread, at an uniform Price, from one Year to another, according to an Annual Assize, by a Plan that may be applied to every Corporation in the Kingdom, &c." The object of the former essay was to point out the best means of promoting the wealth and strength of the nation; that of the present, to explain the direct means of promoting the contentment of the people. His plan is, to establish public granaries; and to encourage the farmers, by the same bounty which was formerly given to the merchant exporters of corn, for a period of eight years, to produce a surplus of one-eighth more corn than is annually consumed in the kingdom; by which means a quantity may be stored equal to one whole year's supply, an uniformity preserved in the markets for a succession of years, and the disgraceful and expensive necessity of having recourse to foreign nations in times of scarcity prevented. Against the establishment of granaries, which in smaller states, the republic of Ge-

neva for instance, has been attended with incontestible advantages, we do not conceive that any solid objections can be advanced. The other part of his plan will be thought by many economists to involve in it considerable difficulties. What he has written upon the whole subject, however, is so sensible and perspicuous, the calculations which accompany it so ingenious, and many of his remarks and hints so important and useful, that his proposal certainly merits serious and dispassionate consideration.

Mr. Masters's "View of Agricultural Oppressions, and their Effect upon Society," appears to have been written under the influence of a genuine benevolent spirit; but is not distinguished by novelty of matter, or any great force of argument. Of the eight chapters into which it is divided, those which treat on the evils in our agricultural system, arising from the law of primogeniture, the law of entail and commercial monopolies, and those in which the author discusses the enquiries, what ought to be, and what is the condition of our labouring classes? suggest reflections which cannot, indeed, be too frequently offered to the notice of the public. In his concluding chapter, on general education, Mr. Masters urges humane and satisfactory considerations, which serve to expose the barbarous and despotic policy of those speculatists who would preclude the poorer classes from the advantages of mental improvement.

The "Address to the Landed Interests on the Deficiency of Habitations and Fuel, for the Use of the Poor, by William Morton Pitt, Esq. M. P." reflects honour on the author's good sense and humanity,

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and deserves the attentive consideration of the persons to whom it is addressed. The clients for whom he pleads, forming the great mass and strength of the community, it must be the truest policy of those possessed of property to devise and encourage plans for alleviating their distresses and increasing their comforts. The deficiency of our legal provisions for these purposes has long been the subject of lamentation, and will, we fear, long continue to be so. Those individuals, therefore, who endeavour, by their example and advice, in some measure to remedy the evil, are entitled to the thanks of the public. In this number is the author of the present address. He proposes the construction of convenient cottages for labourers; the provision of fuel for them at an easy rate; sufficient land to each cottage for a small garden, and to keep a cow; and that the rent to be paid by the occupier be no more than the interest of the money expended in building them. The adoption of such a plan would certainly be of unspeakable advantage to the lower classes, and in a short time leave tenantless those parish poor-houses, which, in many parts of England, "strike horror into the breast of every stranger who approaches them." On these mansions of misery, and too frequently of corruption and depravity, Mr. Pitt offers some important observations; and in an appendix, some useful remarks on working schools, and Sunday schools, for poor children in Chester.

Since the publication of "the First Report of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor," announced in our last year's Register, we have met with five numbers more, which complete the first

volume of those truly philanthropic and useful papers. Among other subjects on which they are employed, too numerous to be detailed by us, we cannot omit mentioning the erection of parish windmills, by which the price of flour to the poor has been much reduced in particular districts; the establishment of village shops for supplying them with coals, candles, soap, &c. at prime cost, and with good soup on very low terms; the regulations of a house of recovery, established by the board of health at Manchester; the advantages of letting small portions of land to the industrious poor illustrated, by instances selected from the cottagers on Lord Winchelsea's estate in Rutlandshire; a mode for assisting the female poor at the period of their lying-in, by lending out sets of child-bed linen and clothes for a limited time; the suggestions for relieving the beggars of London, among which is the establishment of work-rooms in different parts of the metropolis, where the poor might attend and receive inviolably the whole of their earnings, and where, if they chuse, they might partake of a good meal at a cheap rate; and Mr. Gilpin's account of the management of the new work-house at Boldre, in the New Forest, and of two schools at the same place, one for twenty boys, the other for twenty girls, to be selected from the children of the day-labouring poor of the parish. From the above-mentioned institutions and establishments, as well as from others of which we have the history in the different reports, considerable benefits have already arisen to the public, by the superinduction "of a superior tone of industry and economy," and the condition of great numbers of the lower orders have been materially altered.

tered for the better. May the number of subscribers to this society multiply in some tolerable proportion to the importance of the object which they have in view, and their exertions provoke the emulation of other public and opulent individuals to rival them in their work of patriotism, their true labour of love, and the necessity of the interference of the legislature, in the branches of political economy connected with the support and management of the poor, will be in a great degree superseded.

The author of "the Connection between Industry and Property, &c. addressed to the Society for bettering the Condition, and increasing the Comforts of the Poor," enters warmly into their views, and proposes a scheme for their consideration, which appears excellently adapted to co-operate with, and give greater effect to many of their benevolent plans. As "the present laws afford relief to labourers with large families only when they declare themselves paupers; by that act relinquishing for ever the honourable pride which sweetens and invigorates exertion;" he recommends "that a fixed national allowance should be made to every labourer, of one shilling weekly, for every child under ten years of age; not as alms, not as a humiliating badge of incapacity, but as an honourable contribution of the society at large towards the support of the rising generation." By such a measure, he contends, a spirit would be excited and preserved, which would prevent them or their children from becoming perpetual burthens to society. His scheme is simple, and easily put in practice; and we are persuaded, that if it were to be tried for a few years, our poor-rates would be much less weighty and

oppressive than they are at present universally felt to be.

Mr. Peacock's "Outlines of a Plan for establishing a United Company of British Manufacturers," originated in the same commendable principle with the preceding treatises. His object is to form a company, who shall establish a grand manufactory for the employment of artists and artificers of every description; in which the industrious may be supplied with labour, the ignorant with instruction, and those depressed by the calamities of suffering humanity relieved and supported. It is not possible for us to withhold our praise from the spirit and intention of these outlines, which deserve, like every scheme founded on the basis of benevolence, and aiming at the improvement and comfort of the laborious classes, to be recommended to the consideration of the public.

The "Dissertation on the best Means of maintaining and employing the Poor in Parish Work-houses, published at the Request of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, having obtained the Premium offered by the Society for the best Treatise on the Subject, by John Mason Good," abundantly merited the distinction by which it has been honoured. Mr. Good is of opinion, that the present system of poor-laws is adequate to its object, if those to whom the execution of those laws is entrusted, and who are deeply interested in the execution, would but discharge their duty. What he says on this subject, if it may not be thought satisfactory and convincing, is not unworthy of attention, and, particularly, his accompanying remarks on the causes which chiefly contribute to their inefficacy. He is, however,

however, decidedly inimical to the prevailing mode of collecting the poor together in parish work-houses; and offers a variety of reasons to shew, that, in villages more especially, an attention from the overseers to the poor in their own habitations, and in large towns, public work-shops, together with an establishment for the impotent, would be more beneficial to the objects of relief, and less burthensome to the public. These topics occupy the first section into which his treatise is divided. The four remaining sections treat of the general construction of a parish work-house, its offices, furniture, and regulations; the articles of diet and the care of the sick; employment and labour; and moral and religious economies. On each of these subjects Mr. Good has advanced, within a narrow compass, much instructive and interesting matter, from which either the supporters or opponents of the present system may derive useful hints. Those who are engaged in the superintendence of parochial institutions, in particular, may profit by his directions and calculations under the heads of diet, employment, and labour.

The treatise, entitled "a Visit to the Philadelphia Prison, being an accurate and particular Account of the wise and humane Administration adopted in every Part of that Building, containing also an Account of the gradual Reformation and present improved State of the Penal Laws of Pennsylvania, &c. by Robert Turnbull, of South Carolina," deserves a place in the library of every statesman, of every magistrate, and of every well-wisher to the good order and improvement of society in the European world. On reading it, we blushed at the comparison which we were forced to draw

between the management of the prisons in our own country, particularly those in the metropolis, and that in the capital of Pennsylvania. It may, perhaps, appear fanciful to remark, that an auspicious analogy may be traced between the name of the city where the latter admirable institution is fixed, and the treatment which its directors have adopted, either for the punishment of crimes, or the reform of offenders. We cannot enter into the particulars, which we warmly recommend to the attention of our readers; and we cannot withhold from expressing our earnest hope, that our own legislature will take a lesson from a plan, founded on true policy and Christian benevolence. It is but justice to add, that to the exertions of the Society of friends, commonly called quakers, Pennsylvania is chiefly indebted for the encomium which the perusal of this treatise will oblige the reader to pronounce on the administration of prisons, and the criminal code in that state. May their benevolent efforts be equally active, and equally successful on this side the Atlantic!

The "Thoughts on the Necessity of Moral Discipline in Prisons, as preliminary to the Religious Instruction of Offenders, &c. by Thomas Bowen, M. A. Chaplain of Bridewell Hospital," are highly honourable to the author's heart, and contain various observations and suggestions which deserve the serious notice of our prison reformers.

"The Study and Practice of the Law considered, in their various Relations to Society, &c. by a Member of Lincoln's Inn," is a work of very considerable merit. It consists of a series of letters, apparently drawn up by an experienced practitioner, and addressed

to

to a student; in which such views are taken of the subjects mentioned in the title, as are most like likely to excite the ambition and emulation of the youthful mind, possessed of talent and genius, and such didactic remarks interspersed as are highly important and valuable. The style and language too, in which the author has conveyed his arguments and advice; are familiar, elegant, and energetic; such as are well adapted to fix the attention and produce impression. But the work will not be found useless to others, who are not professional readers. "The young and rising mind," whatever be its destination in life, and more especially, if intended to sustain a public character, may derive much advantage from the author's labours.

The "Compendious View of the Civil Law, being the Substance of a Course of Lectures read in the University of Dublin, by Arthur Browne, Esq. S. F. T. C. D. &c." Vol. I. is the commencement of a work which we soon hope to see completed, and which has long been a desideratum in English literature. It occurred to the author, "that a short work, in the method and order adopted by Mr. Justice Blackstone, in his Commentary on the Laws of England, as nearly as the spirit of the two laws would possibly allow, might, by the familiarity of its order, entice the student of the common law to take at least a cursory and general view of this more ancient code, when the conciseness of the sketch could not possibly encroach on his time." Our readers will sufficiently understand from this quotation the manner which the author has adopted. The matter in the volume before us comprises all those subjects contained in Blackstone's two books

on the Rights of Persons, and the Rights of Things, which were capable of being brought into this discussion, distributed into seventeen lectures; to which the author has prefixed three introductory lectures, on the Utility of the Study of the Civil Law, on the comparative Merits of the Roman and English Laws, and on the Law of Nations. Mr. Browne has also subjoined a number of notes to his text, which relate to the statute law of this kingdom, and contain references to, and abstracts of, cases, down to a recent period. On the whole, we remark, that this work affords satisfactory evidence, that the author possessed the preliminary knowledge necessary for engaging in such an undertaking; that he has conducted it with great ability and judgment; and that those who are already conversant in the civil law may read it with pleasure, "in adjumentum memoriæ;" and students for the sake of obtaining profitable information.

The remaining publications of the year 1798, the titles of which we have to insert in this department of our Register, were "the Statutes at Large, from the 35th Year of the Reign of King Geo. III. to the 38th Year of the Reign of King Geo. III. inclusive," being a 13th vol. of Mr. Runnington's edition, and a 17th of Mr. Ruffhead's; "Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of King's Bench, from Michaelmas Term, 37 Geo. III. 1796, to Trinity Term, 38 Geo. III. 1798, both inclusive, &c. by Charles Durnford and Edward Hyde East, Esqrs." or the completion of their 12th vol.; "Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber, in Easter and Trinity Terms, 37 Geo. III. by
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John Bernard Bosanquet and Christopher Puller, Esqrs.;" "Report of Cases determined in the High Court of Chancery, vol. III. part III. by Francis Veley, Jun., Esq.;" "an Abridgement of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law, during the Reign of his present Majesty, with Tables of the Names of Cases and principal Matters, by Thomas Walter Williams, Esq." vol. I; "a Collection of Decrees, by the Court of Exchequer, in Tythe Causes, from the Usurpation to the present Time, carefully extracted from the Books of Decrees and Orders of the Court of Chancery (by permission of the Court) and arranged in Chronological Order, by Hutton Wood, one of the Six Clerks of the Court of Exchequer," vols. I. and II; a new edition of "the Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, originally compiled by George Crompton, Esq. revised, corrected, and newly arranged, by Baker John Sellon, Serjeant at Law," in 2 vols; a new edition, corrected and enlarged, of "the Practice of the Court of King's Bench in Personal Actions, part I. by William Tidd, Esq.;" "the Law of Costs, in Civil Actions and Criminal Proceedings, by John Hullock, Esq.;" "a complete System of Pleading, containing Covenant and Debt, &c. by John Wentworth, Esq." vols. VI—VIII; a new edition, corrected, with considerable additions, from printed and manuscript cases, of "a Digest of the Law of Actions and Trials at Nisi Prius, by Isaac Espinasse, Esq.;" "a Practical Digest of the Election Laws, by Robert Orrie, of the Inner Temple;" a new edition, with introductory remarks and notes, comprising the most modern authorities, of Sir William Jones's "Essay on the Law of

Bailments, by John Balmanno, Esq.;" "a succinct View of the Law of Mortgages, with an Appendix, containing a variety of Scientific Precedents of Mortgages, by Edward Coke Wilmot, of Gray's Inn.;" "a Treatise on the Law of Homicide and of Larceny at Common Law, by Robert Beville, Esq.;" "General Observations on the Power of Individuals to prescribe, by Testamentary Dispositions, the particular future Uses to be made of their Property, occasioned by the last Will of the late Mr. Peter Thelufson, by John Lewis de Lolme, LL. D.;" "Observations on the Statutes for registering Deeds, with a Collection of Cases upon the Operation and Extent of these Statutes, &c. by John Rigge, Deputy Register for Middlesex.;" "a Treatise on Leases and Terms for Years, by Matthew Bacon, of the Middle Temple, Esq.;" "a Digest of the Acts of Parliament for raising a Provisional Force of Cavalry for the Defence of these Kingdoms, with Notes and Observations, by Edward Boswell, Clerk to the Lieutenancy of Dorset.;" "a new Law Dictionary, comprehending a general Abridgment of the Law, on a more comprehensive Plan than has hitherto been attempted, &c. by William Marriot, Esq." vol. I; "an Essay on Literary Property, containing a Commentary on the Statute of Queen Anne (8. 2. Ann. 19.) and Animadversions on that Statute, by the Rev. Dr. Trusler.;" "the Trial of James O'Coigley, otherwise called James Quigley, &c. Arthur O'Connor, Esq. John Binns, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, for High Treason, under a Special Commission, at Maidstone, taken in Short Hand by Joseph Gurney.;" "the Trial at large of Arthur O'Connor, Esq. &c. for High Treason,

son, taken in short hand;" "the Proceedings of a General Court Martial, held on Major-General Maurice Wemyss, at the Marine Barracks, January 4, 1798; and "Minutes of a Court Martial to try Lord Henry Paulet, Captain of the *Thalia*."

Among the publications which we have to insert in our Mathematical List, are "the Elements of Algebra, by Leonard Euler: translated from the French, with the critical notes of Bernouilli. To which are added, the additions of M. de la Grange, some original Notes by the Translator, Memoirs of the Life of Euler, with an Estimate of his Character, and a Praxis to the whole Work, consisting of above two hundred Examples," in 2 volumes. This is a work which the very high and justly deserved reputation of the author renders a valuable present to English mathematicians. The original was published at Petersburg, in German, in 1770, and translated into French in 1774, by M. Bernouilli, with notes, and learned additions by M. de la Grange, farther explanatory of the most abstruse parts of the science. The present English edition is a version of the latter, increased by the supplementary matter indicated in the title; and, if we may judge from the perspicuity and propriety of its language, appears to be executed with fidelity and correctness. The first volume contains the determinate analysis; the second the indeterminate analysis. The object of M. Euler in undertaking this work, was to compose an elementary treatise, by which a beginner, without any other assistance, might make himself a complete master of the science. It was dictated by him, after he had lost the sight of both eyes, to a young man, his

servant, "sufficiently master of arithmetic, but in other respects without the least knowledge of mathematics. He had learned the trade of a tailor, and, with regard to his capacity, was not above mediocrity. This young man, however, not only retained what his illustrious master taught and dictated to him, but, in a short time, was able to perform the most difficult algebraic calculations, and to resolve with readiness whatever analytical questions were proposed to him. This fact must be a strong recommendation of the manner of in which this work is composed, as the young man who wrote it down, who performed the calculations, and whose proficiency was so striking, received no instructions whatever but from this master, a superior one, indeed, but deprived of sight." But this work, by the fullness of information, and profoundness of research that distinguish it, is equally recommended to the most experienced adepts, as it is to the student by "the wonderful simplicity and clearness of the great author's manner." And those, especially, who are attached to the study of the diophantine problems, will find them here "reduced to a system, and all the processes of calculation, which are necessary for the solution of them, fully explained." The life of Euler by the translator, in which the character and powers of his mind are delineated, is drawn up with judgment and precision; and the praxis which is added, of examples to illustrate the elements, will afford much desirable assistance to the young mathematician.

The "Appendix to the Principles of Algebra, by Francis Maseres, Esq. F. R. S. Cursitor Baron of his Majesty's Court of Exchequer," is written as a supplement

to Mr. Frend's treatise on that science, which we introduced to our readers in our Register for the year 1796. It restores the two rules commonly attributed to Cardan, to the true inventors, Scipio Ferreus, and Nicholas Tartaglia, and contains analytic and synthetic investigations of them. It, likewise, presents us with accurate examinations of equations of the third and of the fourth orders; and an acute comparison between the method of Luigi Ferrari, for the solution of certain forms in the fourth order, and Raphson's mode of approximation; to the latter of which our author gives a decided preference. But what will particularly engage the attention of the mathematical world, it contains an unequivocal and perfect approbation of Mr. Frend's doctrine respecting negative numbers. The assent of a person of such eminence in algebraic science to the new opinion, shows, at least, that it has not been adopted without weighty and forcible reasons for its truth; and may, perhaps, encourage other mathematicians to throw off all dread of innovation, all implicit scientific faith, or habit of taking for granted that which has not been previously proved, and to question some other long received dogmas, which certainly wear the appearance of contradiction and absurdity. Is not this the case with the doctrines of infinity and imaginary quantities, as explained by algebraists, and that of the asymptote in conic sections?

In our Register for the year 1796, we announced the publication of Mr. Manning's "Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra." During the present year the author has published a second volume of that work, comprehending the propor-

tion of variable quantities; the rule of three; reduction; arithmetical and geometrical series; incommensurables; application of algebra to rectilinear geometry; surds; greatest common measure of algebraic expressions; properties of numbers; and logarithms. This volume is distinguished by the same precision of language, and clearness of demonstration which marked the preceding; and is particularly to be commended for the satisfactory manner in which the author explains the doctrine of proportion; the application of algebra to rectilinear geometry; and the logarithmic series. In the latter Mr. Manning acknowledges his obligations to M. de la Grange. From his observations in an appendix, on impossible and negative quantities, we are not disposed to rank him among the zealous advocates for their continued use in algebraic demonstrations.

"The Elements of Geometry, containing the first six Books of Euclid, with two Books on the Geometry of Solids, to which are added, Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, by John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh," bear honourable testimony to the acuteness, learning, and true scientific spirit of the respectable author. Mr. Playfair was induced to undertake the work, from a desire of accommodating the principles of the ancient geometry to the present state of mathematical science, and of defending the modern calculus from the severe censure of the learned Torrelli. In both these objects he has succeeded in the most satisfactory manner. His first, second, third, fourth, and sixth books are the same with those in Robert Simpson's edition of Eu-

clid, with the exception of some alterations, remarks, additional propositions and corollaries, calculated to illustrate the obscurities, if not to remedy defects in the demonstrations of the Greek Geometer. In the fifth book, he has substituted algebraical demonstrations, in the room of the geometric mode of illustrating the doctrine of proportion. We cannot avoid expressing our wish, however, that he had retained Euclid's demonstrations and figures in the text, and subjoined his own in the form of notes. Such a method would have precluded many of the objections, which the advocates for the old school of geometry will advance against his innovating spirit. In his two books which treat of the geometry of solids, Mr. Playfair has widely departed from Euclid, in his mode of demonstration, and ingeniously justified the claims of modern philosophy to the honour of simplifying that branch of mathematical science. On the whole, we consider his elements to constitute a valuable accession to our stock of English geometrical publications.

The "Course of Mathematics, in two volumes, composed, and more especially designed, for the Use of Gentlemen Cadets in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, by Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. and Professor of Mathematics in the said Academy," present us with a judicious compendium of those branches of the pure and mixed mathematics, most useful and necessary in the future destination of his pupils; and adapted, with the author's well known ability, to introduce them to a fuller acquaintance with their leading principles, and their practical application. But the utility of this work is not exclusively, or chiefly con-

fined to young persons designed for the military line. Those who are intended for civil occupations will find it not only a serviceable and pleasing guide to an acquaintance with mathematical science, but with other collateral subjects, of which no well educated man should be ignorant, or which are of importance in the intercourse of common life. The first of these volumes treats of arithmetic, logarithms, algebra, and geometry; the second of trigonometry, conic sections, mechanics, hydrostatics, and fluxions.

The "Complete System of Astronomy, by the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge," volume I, is a work on which the scientific and practical astronomer will set a high value. It is divided into thirty chapters, in the following arrangement: definitions; doctrine of the sphere; right ascension, declination, latitude and longitude, of the heavenly bodies; equation of time; length of the year, precession of the equinoxes, and obliquity of the ecliptic; parallax; refraction; system of the world; Kepler's discoveries; the motion of a body in an ellipse about the focus; opposition and conjunction of the planets; mean motion of the planets; the greatest equation, eccentricity, and place of the aphelia of the orbits of the planets; the nodes and inclinations of the orbits of the planets to the ecliptic; the Georgian planet; apparent motions and phases of the planets; the moon's motion, from observation, and phenomena; rotation of the sun, moon, and planets; the satellites; the ring of Saturn; aberration of light; projection for the construction of solar eclipses;

eclipses; eclipses of the sun and moon, and occultations of the fixed stars; transits of Mercury and Venus over the sun's disk; comets; fixed stars; longitude; use of the globes; and the division of time. Under these heads Mr. Vince has, with great diligence and care, collected, and judiciously systematized whatever relates to his subjects, as determined by the latest improvements in science, and the newest and most accurate observations; established his principles by demonstrations that are perspicuous, legitimate, and, in general, sufficiently comprehensive; and accompanied them with a variety of correct and useful tables, the evident result of very laborious and attentive study. On the whole, his system promises, when complete, to be the best work of the kind of which English literature will have to boast.

At Cambridge, we understand, Mr. Wood, Fellow of St. John's College, and Professor Vince are jointly employed in publishing, for the Use of the Students in the University, the Substance of the Lectures in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, which are usually read there; the former gentleman engaging to draw up the algebra, mechanics, and optics, and the latter fluxions, hydrostatics, and astronomy. And that the whole may form one system, the parts drawn up by each are submitted to the consideration of the other, and such alterations and additions made as are thought necessary by both. Four volumes of this work have already made their appearance; one on algebra, mentioned in our notice of Mr. Manning's Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra, in our Register for the year 1796; another on fluxions; and two others on

mechanics and hydrostatics. They have not, however, yet fallen in our way; but as we are led to expect that they are to be offered to the attention of the public at large, together with the remaining volumes on optics and astronomy, we shall probably ere long have an opportunity of more particularly announcing the complete work in our annual catalogue.

"Practical Astronomy, containing a Description of the Solar System, the Doctrine of the Sphere, the principal Problems in Astronomy, &c. by Alexander Ewing," is chiefly designed for the use of schools; to assist those young persons who are acquainted merely with arithmetic, the circles of the sphere, and logarithms, in solving "the problems relating to the Places and Positions of the Sun, Moon, Planets, and Fixed Stars, for any given Time and Place." In prosecuting his object, he has given proofs of becoming diligence and attention in the directions which accompany his problems, the examples which illustrate his principles, and the selection which he has made of astronomical tables. But if his work shall meet with attention only in those schools where an introduction to an acquaintance with the circles of the sphere, and with logarithms make a part of common education, we fear that his trouble in drawing it up will be but poorly recompensed.

The "Astronomical Observations made at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, from the Year 1750 to the Year 1761, by the Rev. James Bradley, D. D. Astronomer Royal, Savilian Professor of Astronomy at Oxford, F. R. S. &c." volume I. folio, constitute a very valuable present to the public, which has been long impatiently

expected by practical astronomers. Dr. Bradley's papers, after the author's death, were claimed by the Royal Society, and afterwards by the crown, in a suit at law, commenced at the instance of the Board of Longitude. After that law-suit was abandoned, in the year 1776, they were presented to the university of Oxford, by the Rev. S. Peach, who came into their possession by right of his wife, the only child of the late Dr. Bradley. Dr. Hornsby, to whose care and conduct they were entrusted as editor by the university, in his preface, assigns his ill state of health, occasioned, perhaps, by the toil and assiduity with which he laboured in his arduous and important undertaking, and the unwillingness of his generous employers to confide the business to other hands, as the causes of the delay, which since the period above mentioned took place in their publication. In addition to the particulars just recited, the nature of the work requires us only to inform our readers, that the tables in the present volume form three hundred pages of observed transits of the sun, planets, and fixed stars, over the meridian; three hundred and one pages of meridional distances of the sun, planets, and fixed stars from the zenith, southward; 90 pages of meridional distances of the fixed stars from the zenith, northward; and with the zenith sector twenty-five pages; and forty-one pages of apparent right ascensions.

The 1st volume of "Reports of the late Mr. John Smeaton, F. R. S. made on various Occasions in the Course of his Employment as an Engineer," has been published from the manuscripts, designs, drawings, &c. of the author, under the care of Sir Joseph Banks, Captain Joseph Huddert, Mr. Jellop, Robert

Mylne, and John Rennie, Esqrs. Its appearance affords us the opportunity of congratulating the public on the institution of the society of civil engineers,—“a self created set of men, whose profession owes its origin, not to power or influence; but, to the best of all protection, the encouragement of a great and powerful nation;—a nation become so from the industry and steadiness of its manufacturing workmen, and their superior knowledge in practical chemistry, mechanics, natural philosophy, and other useful accomplishments,”—a society which promises, from the union of men of talents and fortune which it comprehends, to prove highly beneficial to the community. This society was originally projected by Mr. Smeaton; but was not constituted in its present form till some months after his death, which took place in October, 1792. It is divided into three classes. The first class, as ordinary members, consists of real engineers, actually employed as such in public or in private service. The second class, as honorary members, is composed of men of science, and gentlemen of rank and fortune, who have applied their minds to subjects of civil engineering, and of those who are employed in other public service where such and similar kinds of knowledge are necessary. The third class, as honorary members also, consists of various artists, whose professions and employments are necessary and useful to, as well as connected with, civil engineering. The meetings of the society are regularly held every other Friday during the session of parliament. We need not offer any apology for embracing the first opportunity which regularly offered itself to us, of announcing the institution

stitution of such a body of men. The volume before us contains the first fruits of their offerings to the public, and reflects honour on their liberality and zeal, and on the exertions of their committee, whom we have already named. It consists of a variety of letters, reports, &c. containing questions to, and answers from, Mr. Smeaton on the subjects of canals, mills, dams, locks, harbours, light-houses, fire-engines, and other topics connected with civil engineering; from which persons engaged in those lines cannot fail of deriving much valuable and interesting information. Prefixed to these reports is a short account of the Life and Writings of Mr. Smeaton; in which justice is done to his virtues and amiable qualities as a man, as well as to his rare abilities in his professional character.

The "Observations on the various Systems of Canal Navigation, with Inferences Practical and Mathematical, &c. by William Chapman, Member of the Society of Civil Engineers," are principally designed to contest the universal application of the opinions thrown out by Mr. Fulton, in his treatise on the Improvement of Canal Navigation, noticed in our Register for the year 1796. After giving a brief history of the origin and progress of water-carriage, the author enters into a comparative estimate of the expense of forming narrow canals with inclined planes, and wide canals with locks. The application of wheel-boats and inclined planes to collieries, and of inclined planes to the great rivers of America, are the subjects which he next discusses. Mr. Chapman afterwards presents us with a variety of remarks on the canals and inclined planes of China. From the preceding inquiries and investiga-

tions, and a particular examination of Mr. Fulton's boats, and the machinery for conveying them overland, he wishes to impress the conviction, that Mr. Fulton's system, although very ingenious, like all others is necessarily limited in the propriety of its application; that his universal reprobation of locks is to be attributed to the warmth of imagination, which has hurried him on to the support of a favourite hypothesis; that great canals with locks, and small canals with inclined planes, may be made, whenever peculiar circumstances occur, to coincide with each other, with more advantage to the public than from the adoption of either of them separately; and that no general system can be adopted, and nothing extensive can be determined on with propriety, without the aid of great experience and abilities. These observations of Mr. Chapman, which discover no small acquaintance with the objects of his profession, and are written with ability and candour, are deserving of respectful attention.

Mr. Tatham's "Remarks on Inland Canals, the small System of Interior Navigation, various Uses of the Inclined Plane, &c," considered in a comparative view with the preceding, and other publications which have already appeared on the subject, throw little light on the disputed question respecting the relative merit of locks and inclined planes.

Mr. Dodd's "Reports, with Plans, Sections, &c. of the proposed Dry Tunnel, or Passage, from Gravesend, in Kent, to Tilbury, in Essex, &c." under the bed of the river Thames, reflect great honour on the author, from the felicity and grandeur of the original conception, the demonstrated practicability of the design, at a comparatively

trivial expense, and the great advantages which must accrue from it to the counties of Essex and Kent, and to the nation at large. In using the expression "demonstrated practicability of the design," we think ourselves fully justified by the examples which Mr. Dodd has adduced, of similar excavations which have already been executed in this country. The tunnel he recommends to be of the cylindrical form, lined on all sides with stone, keyed together in the manner of an arch, and with an internal diameter of sixteen feet. While we are writing this article we learn from the public prints, that the design has been warmly patronised by men of rank and fortune on both sides of the Thames; and that all the money necessary to complete it has been already subscribed. Mr. Dodd's treatise contains another report respecting a canal from near Gravesend to Stroud, from which peculiar advantages would arise to the country at large, and to the government establishments on the rivers Thames and Medway.

The "Essay on the comparative Advantages of Vertical and Horizontal Windmills, containing a Description of an Horizontal Windmill and Watermill, upon a new Construction, and explaining the Manner of applying the same Principle to Pumps, Sluices, Methods of moving Boats, &c. by Robert Beatson, Esq. F. R. S. E. &c." is deserving of notice from the great simplicity of the author's invention, and the variety of useful purposes to which it can be applied. From the perspicuity of his description, and the plates which accompany it, the reader will find no difficulty in acquiring a perfect idea both of the principle and its operation.

"Pantometry, or an Attempt to

systematise every Branch of Admeasurement, by John Dawes, Surgeon," contains a proposition for simplifying our present tables of weights and measures, which does not promise, in our judgment, to prove more satisfactory than the plans of preceding writers on the same subject. It is a kind of combination of the two systems, in which the oscillations of a pendulum, and a certain portion of the earth's circumference are respectively employed as the means of obtaining an invariable standard. The harmony of the English language would not be much improved by naturalising such of Mr. Dawes's expressions as chronometry, gram-mometry, tetragonometry, numismatometry, arithmometry, &c.

On the subject of improving the port and city of London, various plans have been offered to the public, which belong partly to this department of our work, and partly to that of political economy. The principal of them will be found in "a Collection of Tracts, on Wet-Docks, for the Port of London, with Hints on Trade and Commerce, and free Ports," without any printer's name; and "Porto Bello, &c. illustrated with Plates, by Sir Frederic Eden, Baronet." But the particulars are too numerous to be detailed by us. They are the offspring of ingenuity and patriotism. On their practicability and tendency to promote the commercial interests of the metropolis, as well as the prosperity of the nation at large, our legislators are expected soon to give their opinion.

In our Register for the year 1790, we introduced to our readers the first Part of Mr. Clark's (Clerk's) "Essay on Naval Tactics, systematical and historical, &c." We have now to announce the appearance of the

the 2d, 3d, and 4th parts of that work; which are equally important and interesting with the preceding, and, like that, illustrated with explanatory plates. Great, and not unmerited, have been the encomiums passed on the author of this work, for his sagacity in devising powerful modes of attack on an enemy's fleet; which are said to have met with the entire approbation of our most experienced and successful naval commanders. Indeed some of his applauders have appeared desirous of transferring to his brows, a share in the laurels which have been so gallantly earned by a Rodney, a Howe, a Jervis, a Duncan, and a Nelson. The observance of his instructions, they contend, in conjunction with their own frequently tried skill and valour, led to the attainment of their memorable victories. We have no evidence before us to convince us of that fact. But it is not our business to contest the point, nor our wish to detract in the least from any honours to which Mr. Clerk may have a claim. Let his works, compared with the actions of our heroes, and those of their predecessors in the long-famed school of British naval tactics, determine the question. The second part of this essay is employed on the best mode of attack from the leeward. The third part contains his division of the history of naval tactics, into different periods, from the earliest times to the present; together with observations on the nature of sails, cannon-shot, signals, &c. and naval instructions. The fourth part consists of descriptions of the different sea engagements which took place in the year 1782, and the author's remarks on each.

In military tactics, we meet

with "A Treatise on the Duty of Infantry Officers, and the present System of British Military Discipline, &c. by Thomas Reide, Esq. Captain in the Loyal Essex Regiment of Fencible Infantry." This work has met with very general approbation, in the profession best qualified to judge of its merits, and comprehends a vast quantity of useful information, compressed into the small compass of two hundred and fifty-eight pages.

Mr. Workman's "Elements of Military Tactics, conformable to the System established by his Majesty's Order," part I. is also a work of greater value than magnitude. Definitions of the principal military terms, with illustrative remarks, and a general view of the new system; the method of instructing recruits, with general rules for the marching and wheeling of a single rank; the manual and platoon exercises, with explanations of the different motions, &c. and the formation and movement of the platoon, are the subjects on which it is employed.

The "Instructions for Hussars, and Light Cavalry acting as such in Time of War—a Translation," are attributed to the pen of Mr. Rose, jun. M. P. who commands a corps of yeomanry cavalry. In the preface it is stated, by the translator, that they came into his hands in manuscript, and "were in use in a body of troops highly distinguished for its good conduct in one of the confederate armies; and that the principles inculcated in them are those to which the best hussars now known conform." These circumstances will unite, with the judgment displayed by the editor in the selections which he has added to them from authors of reputation in the art of war, and his own

useful notes, in recommending them to our yeomanry and volunteer corps.

"The Art of Defence on Foot; with the Broad Sword and Sabre, uniting the Scotch and Austrian Methods into one regular System, &c. with Plates," deserves to be commended for the clearness, and particularity of the instruction which it comprehends; by which any gentleman may be enabled to make a considerable proficiency in the art, without the assistance of a master.

"The Officer's Manual in the Field, or a Series of Military Plans, representing the principal Operations of a Campaign, translated from the German," consists of sixty neatly executed, and generally correct plates, accompanied with so much text as is necessary for their explanation. It appears well calculated to answer its design, which is "to elucidate and render familiar the objects of the military profession, by exhibiting detached plans, which comprehend both the positions of an army with respect to its enemy, the nature of the ground on which it is to act, the nature in which manœuvres, marches, &c. are to be prepared and executed; and to give certain precepts of this difficult science, the rules of which, as well as their application, are almost innumerable."

"The Light Horse Drill, describing the several Evolutions in a progressive Series, &c. designed for the Use of the Privates and Officers of the Volunteer Corps of Great Britain," part I. consists, like the preceding article, of plates, which are ten in number, and a proportionable accompaniment of explanatory text. Both the former and the latter are executed with sufficient minuteness and perspicuity, to

be useful to the parties for whom they are intended.

The treatise, entitled "Pro Aris et Focis—Considerations that exist for reviving the Use of the Long Bow, with the Pike, &c. by Richard Oswald Mason, Esq." was addressed to the public during the period of the late threatened invasion, to convince them of the vast importance of those ancient weapons in defensive warfare. So highly does he deem of their efficiency, that he even prefers them to the musket and bayonet; and recommends the establishment of numerous bodies of bowmen, for the exercise of whom he offers some concise and well written instructions, illustrated with plates. What Mr. Mason has written on this subject is ingenious and interesting, and appears to have been dictated by the zealous and patriotic wish of aiding "the measures brought forwards by his majesty's ministers in defence of the country." But we do not conceive that he will meet with much success, in persuading his countrymen to adopt his favourite military system.

The "Tables for accurately ascertaining by Weight or Measure the Strength of Spirituous Liquors, from 30° to 85° of Temperature, &c. by John Wilson," are very comprehensive, and promise to be of considerable use to persons connected with the spirit trade, or employed in levying the duties in that branch of commerce and manufacture. They are preceded by an introduction, describing the principles on which they are constructed by a variety of examples, and the nature and use of the instruments employed; among which is a new one, called by the author "a weighing bottle." The tables in the eighty-second volume of the Philosophical

sophical Transactions were made use of by Mr. Wilson as the basis of his work.

The object of the next work we have to announce will easily be understood from its ample title, which is "an Essay on British Cottage Architecture: being an Attempt to perpetuate on Principle what was originally the Effect of Chance, supported by Fourteen Designs, with their Ichnography, or Plans, laid down on Scale; comprising Dwellings for the Peasant and Farmer, and Retreats for the Gentleman; with various Observations thereon: the whole extending to Twenty-one Plates, designed and executed in Aqua Tinta, by James Malton." This work does credit to the author's professional skill and taste, and well deserves the notice of those who wish to build or improve "British picturesque rural habitations," whether external appearance or internal accommodation be principally consulted.

[Our account of the publications in Natural Philosophy, must, as usual, begin with the Transactions of the Royal Society: nor, as he continues to deserve so well of science, can we forget that we have been accustomed to give the post of honour to Mr. Herschel. In the volume of the Transactions for this year, he has announced the discovery of four additional satellites to the Georgium sidus, the retrograde motion of its old satellite, with an explanation of the cause of their disappearance at certain distances from the planet. He has, however, no coadjutor in astronomy. Mr. Hellins alone has added to our knowledge in this branch of science, by his improved solution of a problem, by which "swiftly converging series are obtained, useful in computing the disturbances of the motions of the

Earth, Mars, and Venus, by their mutual attractions;" with an appendix on subjects more purely mathematical. Mr. Vince, who has published within this year "a System of Astronomy," for the scientific and mathematical astronomer, rather than the popular reader, has communicated some experiments on the resistance of bodies moving in fluids, the substance of the Bakerian lecture; and Mr. Macdonald has inserted "Observations on the Diurnal Variation of the Magnetic Needle in the Island of St. Helena," with a continuation of the "Observations at Fort Marlborough in the Island of Sumatra." If these contribute to improve the knowledge of the laws of a fluid, so intimately connected with the earth, Mr. Cavendish's very valuable experiments "on the Density" of our planet, have contributed to correct in some degree our opinions respecting its internal substance. He finds it to be less than the mean density deduced by Mr. Maskeline, from his experiments with the pendulum in the neighbourhood of Schehallien, though still much more dense than is consistent with the idea of a central fire. Sir George Shuckburgh, in the same collection, employs the pendulum also to determine a fixed standard of weight and measure; but, to avoid some difficulties, this author ascertains *his* standard from the difference of the vibration of a pendulum, compared with the difference of length; and from thence he determines its absolute length.

We mentioned, in our last volume, the subjects of count Rumford's prizes. In the volume of the Transactions before us, he has given us some opinions on the subject of light. In his paper, he

seems

seems to deny its being a chemical agent, and thinks that the changes which arise in substances exposed to light, may be attributed to the heat separated; an opinion we observed in a volume published at Exeter, formerly noticed, the philosophical parts of which have lately appeared in a separate work, entitled "Philosophical Essays, by a Gentleman of Exeter." In other respects, count Rumford supports the opinions of Mrs. Fulhame, that the decomposition of water is necessary to the reduction of oxydes of gold and silver, supposed to have been effected by light alone. In another paper of the present volume, some experiments are adduced to show, that the general opinion of heat's being elicited, or separated by friction, is untenable; for, after great heat excited, the capacity of heat in the substances employed was unchanged. In an optical view M. Prevost opposes Mr. Brougham's conclusions on some late papers in the Philosophical Transactions, and thinks that they rather tend to confirm than oppose Sir Isaac Newton's doctrine. The only other optical paper in these volumes, is a singular instance of atmospherical refraction, described by Dr. Latham, where the distant coast of France was, by this means, brought within view. In the Manchester Memoirs we find another optical irregularity. Mr. Dalton, the author, and some others whom he has accidentally met with, mistake many colours, in consequence probably of some colour in the humour of their eyes, which disguise or alter the hue of the distant object. In the third volume of the American Transactions, published at Philadelphia, we find both astronomical and optical remarks. Some astronomical remarks, and an ac-

count of a comet of no great importance, by Mr. Rittenhouse; some magnetic observations made at Cambridge in the Massachusetts, and a determination of the right ascension and declination of β Bootes and the polar star. Mr. Ellicot, in the same collection, gives an account of the singular appearance, termed by seamen *looming*, that is, an appearance of land where there is really none. We find also in these Transactions some posthumous papers of Dr. Franklin, viz. "a new and curious Theory of Light and Heat," "Queries and Conjectures on the Magnetism of the Earth," &c. which we recollect in former publications. Little has been added in this year to the explanation of the meteorological phenomena. In the American volume, there are two instances recorded of the insufficiency of conductors in preserving houses from lightning, by Mr. Rittenhouse, either in consequence of the superior power of smoke, or from the iron not penetrating to a sufficient depth in the earth; and some remarks on the means of rendering these preservatives more perfect, by Mr. Paterfon. The use of the thermometer, in soundings, has been judiciously pointed out in the same collection; and in a thermometrical journal from Oporto to America, the temperature appeared so evidently to decrease on approaching land, as to be an useful index of its vicinity. Some experiments of no great importance on evaporation, with a few mathematical papers, occur, in the American volume; nor can we leave our own Transactions, so far as they relate to philosophy, without at least mentioning "the Naval Meteorological Registers;" Mr. Hellins's "New Method of computing the Value of a Slow con-

converging Series," all the terms of which are affirmative; Mr. Atwood's very excellent paper on the Stability of Ships; Mr. Wood's on the Roots of Equations; Mr. R. Brougham's "General Theorems, chiefly Porisms;" and the Catalogue of Sanscrit MS. presented to the Royal Society by Sir William and Lady Jones.

The separate publications on Natural Philosophy have been few, and chiefly trifling. Mr. Ewing's "Practical Astronomy" we have stated, is a useful book for the younger students; and Mr. Williamson's "Essays, Physical and Philosophical, on the Motive Power of Animals, Properties of Matters, and Fallacy of the Senses," deserve no very particular commendation. Mr. Walker has republished his "Experiments on the Production of Cold," claiming, somewhat arrogantly, great merit from what appears in some degree accidental.

Philosophy and chemistry have been rendered usefully subservient to art, in Dr. Bancroft's "Experimental Inquiry concerning the Philosophy of permanent Colours," and the application of different substances to the art of dyeing, a work of great utility and judicious research; and we perceive in the American Transactions a curious account of the dyes of the North-American Indians. In the application of chemistry to medicine, we may mention, without any particular commendation, Mr. Wiseman's account of substances found in the Mere of Difs, with an analysis of the waters of the Mere itself, from the Philosophical Transactions; and Mr. Lamb's "Analysis of the Water of Leamington Priors," from the Manchester Memoirs. We believe we formerly omitted to announce

"Minutes of a Society for Chemical and Philosophical Conversations," in which some trifling, as well as some abstruse subjects of chemical inquiry are considered at a disproportionate length. Dr. Priestley's last efforts in the support of phlogiston, mentioned in our Register for 1797, are examined and refuted, with great propriety, in the Manchester Memoirs. M. Jacquin has not filled his pages of elementary chemistry with much controversy, in his introductory work to this science, which has lately appeared in an English dress, though supposed to favour the old Stahlian doctrine. On the other side, M. Fourcroy, in his Philosophy of Chemistry, has given a valuable and comprehensive view of the principles of the whole science, according to the doctrine of the modern schools. The controversy relative to the Sidneia, the supposed unknown earth from New South Wales, is finally closed by Mr. Hatcher, who analysed the specimen which furnished Mr. Wedgwood with the subject of his experiments. In these new trials, he confirmed those of M. Klaproth, who had proved that Mr. Wedgwood was somewhat too hasty in supposing this extensive island to have furnished another genus of earths. It appeared to be a greenish clay, the debris of a decomposed granite; the same original stone, whose fissures seem to afford the corundum of Asia, the adamantine spar. Mr. Greville's very elaborate paper on this subject, as well as Mr. Hatcher's decisive experiments, occur in the last volume of our Transactions. Dr. Pearson's very ingenious and minute Experiments on the Composition of Urinary Calculi, in the same volume, have added greatly to our knowledge

knowledge of this peculiar concrete; but they have not passed without animadversion, from M. Fourcroy, (a new translation of whose Elements has been published during this year, from the last edition); and we may probably expect a reply from the English chemists.

The aerial chemistry has not been greatly improved since our last accounts. Physicians have been eagerly examining the influence of the different gases on animals and vegetables, without particularly examining or adding to the hints offered by chemists on the continent. Mr. Archer, in his *Investigation of the Effects of Oxygen on the Animal and Vegetable Systems*, follows the Stahlian doctrines, and explains the continuance of the leaves in evergreens, from these plants expiring oxygen in the night as well as the day. He offers also some peculiar opinions, not seemingly well founded, with respect to the influence of oxygen on the human body. In a curious volume of "Essays, Physical and Practical," Mr. Penrose supposes oxygen the principle of cold, and traces its combination in different ways, very little consistent with the doctrines of the most enlightened chemists. The same air is recommended by Mr. Brown in scrophulous disorders, without advertent to the constitutional features of those subject to scrophula, and the changes produced by inspiring oxygen. But the most striking and important improvement of this branch of medicine, and the use of oxygen, is in the venereal disease, administered in the form of acids, or of the oxygenated salts. This practice, formerly noticed, has been the subject of great attention, in various publications from Dr. Beddoes and his corre-

spondents, Mr. Blair, &c. The dispute is still undetermined, and it is not our business to prejudice it. We may, however, observe, that if the effects of these remedies in different hands have been different, their management has been the same; and if we can trust men of integrity and skill, they have *sometimes* succeeded. If their good effects are temporary only; if they retard the symptoms, as they may be given when mercury is inadmissible, they must form an important addition to the materia medica. Mr. Howard's work on Syphilis is on the plan of Mr. Pott's practice, and of course not connected with these new remedies: we mention it only, as the third and last volume was published in the course of last year. Moncrief's little tract on the Aërated Alkaline Water, does not add a single circumstance to our knowledge of the powers of this medicine; nor does the second edition of Dr. Rollo's treatise on the Diabetes Mellitus add materially to the information received from the first. Moise's *Treatise on the Blood* is a work of little importance in a physiological light; and Mr. Plenck's *Hydrology*, which has appeared in an English dress, is rather a synoptical view of what has been already discovered, than any considerable accession to our knowledge of either of our humours. The utility of a fluid, whose source is unknown, but which we formerly supposed to be the electrical, has been lately revived by an American practitioner, Mr. Perkins, through the medium of a simple instrument called *Tractors*, from their supposed power of drawing off diseases of every kind. Mr. Perkins's "*Treatise on the Influence of Metallic Tractors*" contains various testimonials of their good effects,

fects, and they are said to be patronised by some respectable practitioners of this country. It is, indeed, the revival of Galvanism, and its application to the relief of diseases. Dr. Yeats has revived also the claims of Mayow, and endeavoured to prove, that all which modern philosophers boast of with respect to the aerial chemistry may be found in this author. He disputes also, under the same auspices, the discovery of the absorbent system, which he thinks was known to Dr. Mayow, and other ancient anatomists; while a Mr. Humpage, in his "Physiological Researches," attempts to show, that the supposed absorbent system does not exist, but that the red veins perform their office. Two other controversies we cannot have a better opportunity of noticing; one respecting the new charter petitioned for by the corporation of surgeons; the other arising from the claims of the licentiates to an admission to the college. The former has been carried on in various publications, humorous, argumentative, and satirical, whose titles we have no wish to revive; the other has produced chiefly legal contention. The progress of this is stated, with some additional arguments in favour of the licentiates, by Dr. Stanger, in an octavo volume. We have heard of another work more lately on this side of the question, which we have not had an opportunity of perusing. It is well known that the courts of law have decided the point, that might otherwise have still afforded full employment for the press. Dr. Bourne and Dr. Sanders have published Harveian Orations, within the same period, and the former has slightly glanced at the dispute in Latin, equally

terse and elegant; but the same unvaried subject will prevent these annual orations from being interesting. Dr. Sanders's Oration, though not devoid of merit, is inferior to many other performances of this kind.

On medicine in general, the publications have been few, and not important. Dr. Crichton's two volumes "on Mental Derangement" are clear, judicious, and philosophical; but they contain only the physiology and pathology of the disease. Mr. Herdman's treatise "on the Causes and Phenomena of Animal Life," offers a correct view of the subject, but is wholly physiological. The "View of the Science of Life" is a similar work, according to the system of John Brown, with an account of an epidemic successfully treated on the same plan, by the authors, Messrs. Yates and Maclean. The system of Dr. Darwin noticed in our list, which is, in some respects, of a similar cast, has been examined in a separate volume by a gentleman of Edinburgh, not seemingly a physician, and Mr. Brown. He has examined detached parts with great judgment, and detected some errors with acuteness, and perhaps success. Jones's "Medical Errors confuted" is a lively and a pleasing work; but, perhaps, he has committed more errors than he has been able to refute.

Mr. Hallam's treatise "on Insanity" is a work more strictly practical, and Dr. Fordyce's "Essays on Fever," succeed each other very slowly. The words of the comic poet are very applicable to this author, "moves sed nihil promoves." Dr. Wallis has published a judicious treatise on Gout, attacking, with some success, Dr. Latham's doctrine, but not greatly adding

adding to our experience. In the second volume of Dr. Rush's "Medical Enquiries," we find some judicious observations on consumptions, dropsies, hydrocephalus, exercise, diet, and old age; and, in Mr. Ford's "Account of the Disease of the Hip-joint," the most judicious and best connected account of that tedious and often fatal disease that we remember to have seen. In the first part of the first volume of the "Transactions of the College of Philadelphia," the whole that we have been able to procure, there are some useful practical remarks, but not of sufficient importance to notice particularly. Dr. Duncan's "Annual Collection" affords, as usual, some original observations, but of no great value; and the "Medical Facts and Observations," a work, whose object we have already noticed, has proceeded to the seventh volume, with at least no diminution of its credit and importance.

The attention of the medical world has been drawn towards a disorder unknown in medical systems, by Mr. Jenner and Dr. Pearson — the Variolæ Vaccinæ. We shall say nothing of its supposed origin, since that point is now conceded; but as it occurs in cows, it is sometimes communicated to the human subject, forming a disease apparently mild, with this singular effect on the constitution, that it is no longer susceptible of the contagion of small pox. This object has engaged much attention. According to the present appearance of this controversy, neither position is fully established. On inoculation, it produces the same disease; but sometimes attended with very violent symptoms; nor is it absolutely certain, that the disorder destroys the fomes of small pox. But we

shall resume the subject in a future volume, as inquiries on this subject are now eagerly carrying on. Mr. Jenner's "Treatise on the Cow Pox" is illustrated by a coloured plate, which we notice as a real improvement in this branch of medicine, for words are often inadequate to convey a correct idea of cutaneous diseases, and since we have reason to expect a complete treatise on the subject by Dr. Willan. One fasciculus is already published, executed with great judgment and ability, and illustrated by numerous coloured plates. Dr. Rowley's tract "on the Causes and Cure of Swelled Legs" is a practical work of great utility; and we can speak, with respect, of Dr. Currie's treatise "on Apparent Death from Drowning." Mr. Gale Jones has published a very weak and confident work "on Hooping Cough," in which, contrary to universal experience, he considers the disease as asthenic, chiefly, we believe, because it is relieved by opiates. Mr. Ware's "Observations on the Causes that have prevented Success in the Operation for the Cataract" is dictated by judgment and experience, and does not detract from the well earned fame of its author. Mr. Bizard's "Improvement of Hospitals;" Dr. Turton's "Medical Glossary;" Stewart's "Rules and Regulations for the Preservation of Health, on board the East India Company's Ships;" Hufeland's "Art of prolonging Life," now translated from the German; form a miscellaneous list of medical works, which we can mention with great respect.

If, in the course of this year, we have found only one work which we can mention as a surgical performance, Mr. Ware's treatise, just mentioned, the list of anatomical

anatomical works is not very important. Mr. Bell's anatomical work is continued, without any diminution of its accuracy; and he has added to it a "System of Dissections," in a separate publication. Mr. Abernethy's description and explanation of the use of the Foramina Thebesii appear in the Philosophical Transactions; but the latter part is not considered as convincing. Mr. Everard Home has shown, that the plait, or rather orifice, in the retina of the human eye is observable also in those of animals, and sometimes appears as a tube or vessel. He suspects it to be a lymphatic: the plait was first discovered by Sæmmering. We class, in this part of our account, Mr. Cruickshank's "Observations on Insensible Perspiration;" since its chief merit consists in an anatomical dissection of the cuticle, which he divides into numerous layers, some of which he has injected; but he fails in proving, that the exhaling vessels penetrate the cuticle, even when they are erected. On the subject of morbid anatomy, we find two curious papers in the Philosophical Transactions. One, describing an unusual situation of the heart, which was imbedded in the liver, by Mr. Wilson; the other a tumour in the human placenta, by Dr. Clarke, which has furnished him with some curious deductions respecting the structure and use of this singular organ. Dr. Baillie has published a new edition of his "Morbid Anatomy," with the addition of the symptoms; but it were to be wished that he had united this new part with more skill, as the work would have been then more useful. Though various are the disorders which bring us to our end, yet it is the goal we must arrive at, though

at different periods; and, in America, from Mr. Barton's very able and extensive inquiry in the American Transactions, the probability of human life seems greater than in many parts of Europe. That the lives of other animals are prolonged by our care has been doubted; though the attention paid by the veterinary society to horses is highly laudable, and may be salutary; yet the works published on this subject are somewhat hasty, and executed with little care. We cannot speak highly of Mr. Laurence's volumes on the subject of horses, nor of Mr. Coleman's description of the Structure of the Horse's Foot. The works, on other animals, belong rather to natural history than to medicine, either veterinary or epizootic. Mr. Church's "Cabinet of Quadrupeds" is continued with the same spirit and elegance; and Dr. Anderson has presented us, in an English dress, with professor Pallas's "Remarks on the Russian and Tartarian Sheep." Mr. Bewicke has published his first volume of "British Birds," illustrated with his own wooden plates; but the best judgements on them inferior to the decorations of his work on quadrupeds. Dr. Russell's "Description of Indian serpents" is a splendid and useful attempt, not only in the science of natural history, but as it leads us to distinguish the noxious species, and adds to our knowledge of the remedies. Dr. Barton's paper "on the Honey Bee of America" appears to decide the question respecting the country of this useful insect, which must in future be considered as an animal of the old continent.

The fourth volume of the Linneæan Transactions is rich in observations on animals, vegetables, and minerals,

minerals, nor have we room for the display of its varied riches; but can add, that this collection, in our opinion, improves in value and importance. Its president, Dr. Smith, has collected his fugitive pieces in one volume, under the title of "Tracts." It is chiefly of importance, on account of the descriptions of some vegetables, little known, from the Cape of Good Hope, selected from his communications to the foreign societies. Of the more general botanical works, we can announce, with great respect, the 3d and 4th numbers of Roxburgh's "Description of the Plants of Coromandel." The coloured copies are peculiarly splendid and valuable. Dr. Sibthorpe's "Flora Oxoniensis" is a botanical work of value; and Mr. Symons's "Synopsis of British Plants" has been long wanted, and is executed, we apprehend, with accuracy. The index, "*Floræ Lancastrensis*," occurs in the American Transactions, and refers to Lancaster in America. The "*Nereis Britannica*," by Mr. Stackhouse, was almost a desideratum in natural history. Two numbers, equally accurate, and elegant, in the descriptions and plates, have appeared: a third will probably conclude the work; and the same subject has been also illustrated, by Major Velley, in his "Description of Marine Plants, found on the Southern Shores of this Island." The short inquiry into the physiology of these singular vegetables is curious and interesting. The first fasciculus of "Select Specimens of British Plants," with plates, engraved and coloured with peculiar beauty, has appeared; and a very elegant collection of Exotics, from Antigua, by a lady, has been circulated

among her subscribers. Mr. Lambert has described, and figured, all the different species of the tree which produces the Peruvian bark (*cincona*); and M. Beauvois has communicated to the society, at Philadelphia, a first memoir on the "Cryptogamia," with some observations on their physiology. In the same collection, is an account of the "Sugar Maple," by Dr. Rush, and formerly published in a separate form; and an accurate description of the *Podophyllum Diphylum*, which has removed some ambiguities on the subject. The Persian cotton-tree, we find, from an useful memoir by Dr. Guthrie, in the Manchester Transactions, is not an American plant; the first settlers, as we are informed, procured the seed from Smyrna. The black American birch, the Athenian poplar, and the iron-oak, are recommended, in the same volume, as trees both of ornament and profit. Dr. Anderson's little tract on Peat-Moss, affords a satisfactory account of the peculiar nature of this singular vegetable.

Of the more general works connected with Natural History, the catalogue is short. Ruff's popular "System for the Instruction of Youth" has been translated; and Dr. Hooper has published a short and concise view of "the Structure and Economy of Plants." Mr. Forfyth's "Botanical Nomenclator," and the "Botanist's Calendar," may be considered as useful assistances to the student, or the amateur of this pleasing science.]

The correspondent who has furnished us with the preceding account of philosophical and medical publications, not having received the last volumes of the Irish and Edinburgh Transactions, to which

we

we are indebted for some interesting papers among our selections for the present year, we think it proper to subjoin a brief notice of their principal contents.

In the first vol. of "the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh," we are presented with a variety of valuable articles under the heads of Science, Polite Literature, and Antiquities. To the scientific papers, besides the important Dissertation on the primitive State of the Globe, and its subsequent Catastrophe, of which we have given our readers a specimen, Dr. Kirwan has contributed ingenious Thoughts on Magnetism, intended to point out the identity of the primary cause of its phenomena, and the power of chrySTALLIZATION; an Account of Experiments illustrating the Composition and Proportion of Carbon in Bitumens and Mineral Coals; and Synoptical Views of the State of the Weather in Dublin, for the Years 1794, 5, 6, and 7. The Memoirs on the Climate of Ireland, by the Rev. William Hamilton; on the Construction of Ships, by Sir George Shee, Bart.; on the Method of determining the Longitude by Observations of the Meridian Passages of the Moon and a Star, made at two Places, by the Rev. Dr. James Archibald Hamilton; and the Description of an Air Pump of a new Construction, by the Rev. James Little; deserve, likewise, to be particularised, for the importance of their subjects, and the ability and science displayed by the authors. Did our limits permit us, we should insert the titles of all the other essays in this department, as there is not one of them undeserving of the honourable place which it fills in the Transactions of the academy. The papers in Polite Literature,

which are inscribed to immortality, and critical talents, of which they are distinguished, are, Hints concerning the State of Science at the Revival of Letters, grounded on a Passage of Dante, by the Right Honourable the Earl of Charlemont; Reflections on the Choice of Subjects for Tragedy among the Greek Writers, by William Preston, Esq.; an Essay on the Variations of English Prose from the Revolution to the present Time, by Thomas Wallace, A. B.; and Critical Observations on the Poetical Character of Dr. Goldsmith, by the Rev. Archdeacon Burrowes. The most interesting, in a literary view, of the articles under the head of Antiquities, is an Account of some Manuscript Papers which belonged to Sir Philip Hoby, Knight, who filled several important Offices in the Reign of King Edward VI. by the Rev. Mr. Hincks, of Cork.

The fourth vol. of the "Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh," is divided, like the preceding volumes, into two parts. The first part contains the History of the Society, together with well written lives of Lord Abercromby and William Tytler, Esq. by Henry Mackenzie, Esq.; of the late professor William Hamilton, of Glasgow, by Robert Cleghorn, M. D.; and of John Roebuck, M. D. communicated by Mr. Jardine, professor of logic in the university of Glasgow. The second part consists of papers divided into two classes; the Physical and the Literary. Of such as belong to the physical class, the most important are, on the Principles of the Antecedental Calculus, by James Glenie, Esq.; Observations on the Trigonometrical Tables of the Brahmins,

by Professor John Playfair; Geometrical Porisms, with Examples of their Application to the Solution of Problems, by Mr. William Wallace; on the Latitude and Longitude of Aberdeen, by Andrew Mackay, LL. D.; Observations on the Natural History of Guiana, by William Lockhead, Esq.; and Major Imrie's Description of Gibraltar, which we have inserted among our philosophical selections. The papers of the literary class are, a curious Treatise on the Origin and Principles of Gothic Architecture, by Sir James Hall, Bart.; and M. Chevalier's *Tableau de la Plaine de Troye*, illustrated and confirmed from the Observations of subsequent Travellers and others, by Professor Andrew Dalzel.

Among the Historical and Geographical productions of the year, the first place, in point of order, is due to "the History of the Reign of Shah-Aulum, the present Emperor of Hindostaun, containing the Transactions of the Court of Delhi, and the Neighbouring States, during a Period of Thirty-six Years, &c. by W. Franklin, Captain in the Honourable East India Company's Service, Member of the Asiatic Society, &c." This work is the result of several years' application, during the author's relaxation from his professional duties; and relates the transactions of "an interesting and eventful period, and the incidents and occurrences which have marked the decline of power of the race of Timoor, under the turbulent reign of (in all probability) the last of that family who will sit on the throne of Hindostaun." His long residence in India, and personal inquiries on the immediate scenes of the transactions, together with the perusal of manuscripts, written by learned na-

tives, and other documents, furnished by different friends, to whom he acknowledges his obligations, enabled captain Franklin to obtain abundant authentic materials for his history: and he has combined them with judgment and perspicuity, in a style that, with some few exceptions, is correct and elegant. The first chapter is introductory, and contains a narrative of the principal occurrences and revolutions of the court of Shajehanabad, from the last year of the reign of Mahmud Shah, in (A. D.) 1747, until Shah-Aulum's assumption of the imperial dignity, on the murder of his father Ahmud Shah, by an emissary of the vizir Gazooddin Cawn, in 1759; together with the events which took place between that era and the establishment of the imperial residence at Allahabad, under the protection of the English company, in the year 1765. The remaining nine chapters, into which the body of the work is divided, are employed in describing the various circumstances of that prince's disastrous reign, to the death of the celebrated Mahratta chief, Madhjee Scindiah, in the 1793. In addition to the historical information, the development of oriental politics, and the anecdotes of distinguished characters, which this history affords, the reader will find in it many instructive and useful notices, relative to the inhabitants, the geography, and topography of Hindostaun. And among other curious and interesting articles in the appendix, he will meet with a valuable document, explanatory of the causes of the Rohilla war, in 1794.

"The History of Great Britain, during the Reign of Queen Anne, with a Dissertation concerning the Danger of the Protestant Succession and

and an Appendix, containing Original Papers, by Thomas Somerville, D. D. F. R. S. E." is the production of a gentleman who has already recommended himself to the public, by the diligence of his investigations, the accuracy of his statements, the impartiality and candour of his remarks, and the liberality of his sentiments. In our Register for the year 1792, we introduced to our readers his former work, by which his claim was satisfactorily established to the abovementioned requisites for the character of a valuable historian. The volume before us will not tend to diminish, but rather to confirm and increase, Dr. Somerville's reputation. For his materials he had recourse, not only to the most valuable printed authorities, but to a variety of important manuscripts, with the inspection of which he was favoured; and among others, official records, papers collected by the duke of Shrewsbury, copies of letters from lord Godolphin and other eminent persons, preserved in the library of lord Hardwicke, and the unpublished observations of Sir John Clerk, who was a member of the Scottish parliament when the subject of the union was discussed. From these sources he has, with great care and attention, compiled his history. And that his detail of the military transactions during the eventful period in review might be clear and accurate, he availed himself of the amendments and additions of some military friends, who were also conversant in literature, to whose scrutiny it was submitted. On the perusal of it, the author appeared to us invariably to have been influenced by a desire of ascertaining the precise truth of facts, and of explaining the motives and views on which the different political parties acted, who alter-

nately possessed or struggled for power, without being biased by the prejudices and representations of party writers. But were we minutely to describe the impression we received from it, we should expose ourselves to the charge of using unnecessary repetition. We shall, therefore, only observe, that, on the whole, the volume before us offers additional reasons for classing Dr. Somerville among the most judicious and dispassionate of our British historians; whose manner of composition is calm, dignified, and pleasing, if it be less brilliant and fascinating than that of some of his contemporaries.

In our Registers for the years 1793 and 1795, we fully expressed our opinion of the pretensions of Mr. Belsham to the character of an impartial, energetic, and elegant historian, in our notices of his "Memoirs of the Kings of Great Britain of the House of Brunswick Lunenburgh," and his "Memoirs of the Reign of George III. to the Session of Parliament, ending A. D. 1793." We have now to advert to a retrograde motion of the author, and to announce his "History of Great Britain, from the Revolution to the Accession of the House of Hanover," in 2 vols. which has made its appearance during the present year. We shall not, in the instance before us, any more than under the last article, needlessly repeat our former sentiments and phraseology, in characterising these labours of Mr. Belsham, but content ourselves with remarking in general, that the hand of the same master will be recognised in the present, as in our author's preceding volumes. Taken together, they form one work; which we recommend as a pleasing and spirited compendium of the history of this

country, and of parliamentary proceedings, from the abdication of James II. to the commencement of the present war with France. With respect to the volumes immediately before us, the first opens with a summary view of the chief occurrences which distinguished the twenty-eight years from the restoration to the revolution; which is followed by an ingenious vindication of the first earl of Shaftesbury against the misrepresentations of Hume. The latter our readers will find among our Biographical Selections. The remaining part of the work is distributed into six books; of which four are devoted to the reign of king William, and the others to that of queen Anne. Mr. Belsham's authorities during the period in question, are chiefly sir John Dalrymple and Mr. Macpherson.

The "Letters and Correspondence, Public and Private, of the Right Honourable Henry St. John, Lord Viscount Bolingbroke, during the Time he was Secretary of State to Queen Anne, &c. by Gilbert Parke, Wadham College, Oxon," in 2 vols. 4to. and 4 vols. 8vo. cannot fail of a favourable reception from the public, both on account of the celebrity of the principal contributor, whose name they bear, and the importance of the political transactions to which they relate. Even if they should not be thought to throw much light on the history of the period, the circumstantiality of Bolingbroke, in describing the complicate proceedings that terminated in the peace of Utrecht, will be prized by the historian; and readers in general, who have been chiefly accustomed to consider him as a philosopher, and a moralist, will be pleased with the opportunity which this collec-

tion affords them of viewing him more intimately than they could through any preceding medium in the character of a statesman, courtier, and elegant lively correspondent. The letters from Matthew Prior to his noble friend are particularly entertaining. Each of these volumes is accompanied with explanatory notes, state papers, and a translation of the foreign letters, &c. It is only necessary to add, from the information of the editor, that when Bolingbroke was dismissed from his office, and fled to France, his under-secretary, Thomas Hare, esq. secured these papers, and deposited them in the Evidence-house, belonging to the family estate, at Stow-hall, in Norfolk; and that they were entrusted to Mr. Parke, by the descendant and namesake of the under-secretary, the present possessor of his ample fortune.

Mr. Robinson's "View of the Causes and Consequences of English Wars, from the Invasion of this Country by Julius Cæsar, to the present Time," consists of a mixture of historical detail, and political and moral reflections. It is interesting throughout, and frequently highly animated and impressive. The object of the author is to show, that, comparatively, few of the wars into which this country has been plunged have been founded in justice or necessity; that in the greater part, the lives and interests of the people have been cruelly sacrificed for the gratification of ambition, of avarice, or of fanaticism; and that the most successful contests in which we have been engaged, from the quantum of public oppression and personal distresses with which they have been attended, may be pronounced far many splendid misfortunes, which humanity and true policy will contemplate

template with a painful sigh. It will not be an easy matter to controvert the author's statements, or to destroy the force of his accompanying remarks. And the salutary lessons which they read are sufficiently plain and obvious. But we fear that the period is yet far distant, when the multitude will have the good sense to profit by them, and men shall learn war no more. Society, however, is much indebted to our author, and to every individual, who endeavours to represent that most dreadful scourge of the world in every point of view that can excite against it the detestation and abhorrence of mankind.

The "Rapid View of the Overthrow of Switzerland, by an Eyewitness, translated from the French," is written with ability and eloquence, not unmixed with a considerable portion of bitterness in the language applied to the invaders of that once happy country. How far this author's statement of facts is accurate, and his exposition of the causes of the fall of the old governments just, we will not undertake to determine. That the French, as he contends, were active in their intrigues, and not scrupulous about the measures, which they practised for the overthrow of the Swiss oligarchies, and for introducing such a form of government as should be more favourable to their own security and political views, we can easily believe. But one conclusion we conceive to be unavoidable, even from our author's statements, viz. that the revolution of Switzerland was not effected without the co-operation of the Swiss themselves. Whether in such co-operation they acted as traitors to their country, or under the infatuation occasioned by their

profelytism to French principles, or as enlightened patriots, will be variously decided by politicians.

"The British Mercury, or Historical and Critical Accounts of present Transactions," vol. I. by J. Mallet du Pan, was first published in periodical numbers, and consists of "an Historical Essay on the Destruction of the League and Liberty of Switzerland." With M. Mallet du Pan's abilities as an author, and the side which he has embraced in discussing the political topics which of late years have agitated the world, our readers are not unacquainted. So obnoxious had he rendered himself to the French directory by his publications, that they demanded and obtained, through the medium of Buonaparte, his expulsion from the Swiss territory, which had for several years been his asylum. His essay, therefore, may not unfairly be surmised to have received a tincture from his prejudices, and to have been pointed by his resentment. It is, however, an interesting work, and very circumstantial; and will be useful, in connexion with other documents, in enabling the future dispassionate historian to draw a true picture of the Swiss revolution.

The "Journal of Occurrences at the Temple, during the Confinement of Louis XVI. King of France, by M. Clery, the King's Valet-de-Chambre, translated from the original Manuscript, by R. C. Dallas, Esq." is written with a degree of unaffected plainness and simplicity, that serves strongly to impress the reader's mind with a conviction of the truth and accuracy of the facts which it details. It presents us with such a picture of fallen greatness as is calculated to excite the most painful emotions;

and exhibits the private character of Louis, his affection for his family, his patience under his sufferings, and his truly Christian fortitude, in a light that reflects great honour on the memory of that unfortunate and much-injured monarch; and it affords such evidence of the wanton, cruel, and inhuman barbarity of the monsters to whose custody he was committed, as cannot be examined without producing the most lively detestation and abhorrence of their unfeeling conduct.

In our last year's Register we introduced to our readers the 1st and 2d volumes of the abbé Barruel's "Memoirs illustrating the History of Jacobinism." He has since published two additional volumes of that work, in which he wishes to prove the existence of an anti-social conspiracy, whose object is to overturn all civil society, and to rebarbarise mankind; and farther to elucidate the events of the French revolution, by connecting them with branches of his supposed plots. But he is, if possible, less successful as he proceeds in his plan. The 3d volume is employed on the history of the Illuminés, and an attempt to prove a conspiracy on their part to secure the management of the Masonic lodges, for the purposes of religious and political innovation. The abbé's documents, however, are feeble indeed; and his own misconceptions, with the misrepresentations of others which he has admitted too implicitly, have raised the phantom which has disturbed his imagination. Let his own account of the instructions said to be disseminated by that society, independently of the interpretations and surmises which his ingenuity has formed, determine the point.

The 4th volume continues the same subject, discovering an equal propensity to misconception, misapplication, and plot-finding; and applying the system which he formed, and the plots which he has engendered, in explanation of the circumstances which have successively taken place in the course of the French revolution. Towards the conclusion of this volume he takes care to inform us, that the Illuminés have not suffered their emissaries to forget the English lodges. And in the true spirit of the order in which he was bred, he calls on ministers, by laying new restraints on publication, "to take from the sect its means of delusion, to remove far from the people all incendiary productions. And when I speak of the people," says he, "I speak of all classes of society; for I know of none inaccessible to delusion. I speak even more strongly of that class which has been supposed most to abound in information." But why not at once propose the establishment of St. Dominick's venerable institutions, which for several centuries powerfully contributed to the support of the church of which the abbé is a member? The commissaries and familiars of an holy office would prove admirable instruments in detecting and suppressing the above-named means of delusion; and its spirited mode of interrogation of wondrous efficacy in the trial of suspected characters.

The "Sketch of the War in Vendée, extracted from Manuscript Memoirs written by General Beauvais," is only the specimen of a larger work, which the author means to publish, provided he meets with due encouragement, and which is intended to correct the account given in Turreau's "Memoirs."

"Memoirs," noticed in our Register for the year 1796. From the stations which the author held during the progress of that war, the extracts before us, and the table of contents, we are led to expect much curious and interesting information, should his entire work be committed to the press.

The "Narrative of the Shipwreck of the *Juno*, on the Coast of Aracan, and of the singular Preservation of Fourteen of her Company on the Wreck, without Food, during a Period of Twenty-three Days, &c. by William Mackay, late Second Officer of the Ship," is peculiarly interesting and affecting. Out of seventy-two persons, the number mentioned in the title were the only survivors of the fatigue and famine which they underwent; and the period to which their lives were protracted, is an extraordinary circumstance in the physical history of man.

The "Narrative of the Loss of the Ship *Hercules*, commanded by Capt. Benjamin Stout, on the Coast of Caffraria, the 16th of June, 1796, &c." is another publication, in which scenes of "transcendent and complicate horror" will offer themselves to the reader's notice. But its chief recommendations consist in the account which it gives of the humane and friendly reception of the captain and the surviving part of his crew, by the *Tambauchis*, a tribe of savages, that "has been described as the most ferocious, vindictive, and detestable class of beings that inhabit Caffraria;" the detail of their travels through the southern deserts of Africa, and the colonies, to the Cape of Good Hope; and the remarks and observations of the author on the country, its productions, and the temptations which

it holds out to settlers from Europe or America. In the dedication to the president of the American congress, captain Stout strongly recommends a settlement on the coast of Caffraria, in behalf of the United States.

The "Introduction to the Literary History of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries" is very modest in its pretensions, but discovers the author to possess that portion of knowledge, judgment, and taste, which sufficiently qualified him for entering more fully into his curious and attractive subject. It is divided into three parts. In the first part, the author "has endeavoured to give a short historical and critical sketch of the decline of learning in the Roman empire, and followed it to a period when its spirit subsided, and its very existence may reasonably be questioned," the 10th century. In the second part he "has attempted, at some length, to explain and illustrate the principal causes to which, in his opinion, the re-appearance of learning may be probably attributed; its dawn in the eleventh, and an increasing radiance in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries." Those causes are the settlement of the Arabians in Europe, the crusades, and the introduction of the Roman law into our universities, schools, and tribunals. In the third part the author "exhibits a view of the progress of learning during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries;" and treats of the influence of political events, the patronage of the great, the establishment of universities, and the travels of scholars, in the advancement of it; and "of the actual state of learning during that period, but more particularly at its close."

We shall be glad to learn that he

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resumes his labours in this branch of literary investigation.

The "Complete View of the Chinese Empire, exhibited in a Geographical View of that Country, a Dissertation on its Antiquities, and a genuine and copious Account of Earl Macartney's Embassy," is avowedly a compilation, and an abridgment, as far as respects the British embassy, of sir George Staunton's account, with which our readers have already been made acquainted. It has been drawn up with attention, in correct and perspicuous language, and will furnish useful and entertaining information to those who have not the opportunity of consulting the works from which it is borrowed. The Dissertation on the Antiquity of China, indeed, is stated to be a communication from "a writer of eminent celebrity, who has paid more than ordinary attention to the Chinese history, and who will, in a short time, favour the world with the result of his observations and inquiries." When the promised work has made its appearance, we shall be enabled to form a better judgment of the extent of the author's knowledge, and of his talents for research, than we can do from the present essay.

In our Register for the year 1793, when noticing "the Literary Life of the late Thomas Pennant, Esq. by Himself," we mentioned the information which it contained of a voluminous work in manuscript, by the author, under the title of "Outlines of the Globe," chiefly, if not entirely, designed for publication after his death. During the present year, the importunity of his friends has succeeded in persuading him to suffer a part of that work to be committed to the press, under his

own inspection. "The View of Hindoostan," in 2vols. 4to. forms the fourteenth and fifteenth volumes of Mr. Pennant's grand undertaking, and presents us with an ample store of curious and interesting matter. It is professedly a compilation from the best sources, together with valuable private communications; in which history, geography, topography, geology, natural history, antiquities, and picturesque description, are blended together in a lively and pleasing style of composition; and from which we have received both instruction and amusement. The author writes in the character of a traveller, who, commencing his route through the provinces of Hindoostan at its northern extremity, visits successively Cashmeer, the Panjab, the countries on the banks of the Indus to the southward and bordering on the Gulf of Cambay, Surat, Bombay, the Mahratta States, the principal kingdoms and settlements on the western side of the peninsula to Cape Comorin, and the island of Ceylon. With the description of that island the first volume, terminates. In the second volume, Mr. Pennant conducts his reader from Cape Comorin, along the eastern coasts of the peninsula, through the Carnatic and northern Circars, after following all the great rivers to their sources, to what he calls Gangetic Hindoostan; in which are comprehended all the provinces and regions on the banks of the Ganges, from its mouths to its source. Afterwards Mr. Pennant ascends the Burrampooter, and visits Thibet, Bootan, and the other kingdoms on the eastern frontier of Hindoostan, where his imaginary travels are brought to a conclusion. In the various scenes above mentioned, the

the objects most worthy of notice, among the works of nature or of art, are minutely and accurately described, and the author's detail enlivened by numerous anecdotes, ingenious remarks, and original observations. These volumes are illustrated with plates, containing views of the country and of particular places, representations of different characters, objects of natural history, &c. which are in general well executed, and some of them remarkably beautiful.

The "Survey of the Turkish Empire, &c. by W. Eton, Esq." is one of the most interesting productions, the political circumstances of the present period considered, that have of late issued from the English press. It confirms the unfavourable account which the baron Tott formerly gave of the government and manners of the Turks, and offers a variety of additional information, which cannot fail to strike the reader with a conviction of the rapidity with which their monstrous system of ignorance, despotism, and brutality, is hastening toward dissolution; and of the incalculable advantages to Europe in general, and to human nature itself, which must result from such an event. Mr. Eton's materials are distributed under the following general divisions, which are branched out into a variety of chapters : 1. Government, finances, military and naval force, religion, history, arts, sciences, manners, commerce, and population. 2. The state of the provinces, including the ancient government of the Krim Tartars, the subjection of the Greeks, their efforts towards emancipation, and the interest of other nations, particularly of Great Britain, in their success. 3. The causes of the decline of Turkey,

and those which tend to the prolongation of its existence, with a development of the political system of the late empress of Russia.

4. The British commerce with Turkey, the necessity of abolishing the Levant company, and the danger of our quarantine regulations. What the author has written on the subject of Greece, is so novel in English literature, and affords such scope for political speculation, that we were induced to extract largely from it, under the head of Manners of Nations, in the present volume. That Mr. Eton enjoyed the best opportunities for acquiring authentic information on the subjects which he has discussed, will not be disputed, when it is considered, that he was intimately conversant in the language of the Turks; that he resided many years among them in the capacity of consul; that he has had indirect concerns in trade; that, as a traveller, he has visited most parts of the Turkish empire; and that in Russia he was for several years in the confidence of the late prince Potemkin, and in a situation to know more of the secrets of the cabinet than most foreigners. To the circumstance of his long absence from his native country, we must attribute the many inaccuracies and defects in language and construction which occur in this volume.

Mr. Murphy's "General View of the State of Portugal, &c. compiled from the best Portuguese Writers, and from Notices obtained in the Country," is a valuable and interesting present to the English reader. In our Register for the year 1795, we had an opportunity of acknowledging the obligation which the author had conferred on his countrymen by his various memo-
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randa during his "Travels in Portugal." This obligation he has increased by the additional information contained in the work before us, the result of more attentive inquiry, of more intimate converse with intelligent natives, and of a better acquaintance with their most approved authors. The whole is divided into thirty chapters; in which we have a particular and accurate account of the topography, natural history, productions, population and industry, commerce, revenues, military and marine departments, antiquities, curiosities, &c. of the kingdom, and of the character of the different classes of inhabitants, with descriptions of their manners, customs, diversions, &c. From one of the chapters, comprehending a list of the chief premiums offered and adjudged by the Royal Academy of Lisbon, since the year 1783, we are enabled to form some judgment of the progress making by the Portuguese, in improvement in science and the economical arts. In another chapter we are presented with anecdotes of twenty-nine distinguished characters and eminent literati, many of which are curious and entertaining; and in a third, we have a pathetic and well-written narrative of the uncommon adventures of a Portuguese gentleman, with whom the author became accidentally acquainted. This volume is embellished with a map of Portugal, and fifteen other plates, exhibiting views of the bay of Lisbon and of Coimbra, or illustrative of the dress, diversions, &c. of the inhabitants.

The "Geographical and Statistical Account of the Cisalpine Republic, and Maritime Austria, translated from the German by W. Oppenheim, M. D." is a season-

able and useful publication, which, after the new order of things established by the negotiations at Campo Formio, was wanting in English Literature. To the Cisalpine Republic, but a small portion of the volume is devoted. That portion, however, contains much desirable information on the subjects of the situation and boundaries, the extent and population, and the division of the country into its twenty departments; and on other topics, which it is unnecessary to enumerate. But the greater part of the volume is employed on a geographical and statistical account of Maritime Austria. After presenting us with a sketch of its extent and population, soil, lakes, rivers, canals, productions, manufactures, arts, commerce, and revenues, nearly one third of the whole volume, and that not the least interesting, is taken up in the history and description of the city of Venice. The rest of the work, which treats of the dogad of Venice, or district immediately connected with the city, and the other provinces, in the order of their division under the present government, is sufficiently minute, and apparently accurate, and clearly points out the vast importance of the newly acquired territories to the house of Austria.

The "Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, &c. by David Collins, Esq. late Judge Advocate and Secretary of the Colony," comprises "much information interesting in its nature, and that has not been anticipated by any former productions on the same subject." Mr. Collins went out as judge-advocate with the first fleet of convicts under commodore Phillip, in 1787, and did not relinquish his situation till towards the

the latter end of the year 1796, when the South-Wales system of colonisation was in the ninth year of its growth, and a tolerable judgment could be formed respecting its stability and advantages. Of the stability of the settlement we entertain no more doubt than our author; but are less sanguine in our expectations of the advantages to be derived from it. The introduction to the volume before us contains a relation of the proceedings and incidents on the voyage; until the arrival of the fleet at the harbour of Botany Bay. The account of the colony which follows is divided into thirty-two chapters; and contains a complete record of the transactions of the colony, "penned as they occurred, with the feelings which at the moment they naturally excited in the mind," in a style in which the author has not unsuccessfully "endeavoured to temper the dry and formal manner of the mere journalist, with something of the historian's ease." Many parts of this narrative will prove highly gratifying to curiosity, while, occasionally, it will excite painful emotions, by the pictures of distress and misery exhibited in it, and the more frequent "predilection for immorality, perseverance in dissipation; and inveterate propensity to vice," than return of principle in the convicts, which it records. In the conclusion, Mr. Collins has given the particulars of his voyage home to England, with remarks on the state of Norfolk Island, and some account of New Zealand, compiled from the MSS. of lieutenant-governor King. To the whole he has added an appendix, describing the government, stature, habitations, mode of living, courtship and marriage, customs and manners, superstition, dispositions, &c. of the natives.

This volume is illustrated with numerous engravings, which, upon the whole, are respectably executed.

The next article which we have to introduce, is a very comprehensive and useful work, greatly superior, in respect to correctness and general execution, to any similar production in English literature. To convey to our readers an idea of what they may expect to meet with in it, we need only insert its ample title, which is "The New Universal Gazetteer, or Geographical Dictionary; containing a Description of all the Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, Cities, Towns, Ports, Seas, Harbours, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Capes, in the known World; with the Government, Customs, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants; the Extent, Boundaries, and Natural Productions of each Country; the Trade, Manufactures, and Curiosities of the Cities and Towns, collected from the best Authors; their Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances, ascertained by actual Measurement, on the most authentic Charts. With Twenty-six whole Sheet Maps. By the Rev. Clement Cruttwell," in 3 vols. In the maps, the improvements from recent nautical and geographical discoveries have been carefully introduced.

The "Geographical Illustrations of Scottish History, containing the Names of Places mentioned in Chronicles, Histories, Records, &c. with Corrections of the corrupted Names, and Explanations of difficult and disputed Points in the Historical Geography of Scotland, collected from the best Authorities, historical and geographical, by David Macpherson," are the result of much industry and patient

patient research, and will be found of considerable use to students, particularly when perusing the ancient history of the northern parts of the British isles. The historical map which accompanies them is neatly and correctly executed.

Among the Biographical publications of the year 1798, we meet with "the Life of Catharine II. Empress of Russia, &c." in 3 vols. This work, for which the English reader is understood to be indebted to the labours of Mr. Tooke, who resided for many years at Petersburg, in the capacity of chaplain to the British factory, is an enlarged translation of the life of that princess, announced by us among the literary productions of France, during the year 1797: but "it is enlarged by considerably more than one half." For his materials, besides what were obtained by his own personal inquiries, the editor acknowledges himself indebted to M. Storch, baron Von Sternberg, M. Bachmeister, M. Georgi, M. Kupele, and in a few instances, concerning the affairs of Poland and Moldavia, to the Annual Register. From these several sources he has compiled a very full and interesting account of the empress Catharine, and, we are persuaded, "has not missed his aim of so blending information and entertainment, as to meet the public approbation." The first volume commences with a succinct and useful statistical account of the Russian empire, by the editor: which is judiciously made to supersede the romantic nonsense in the original, relative to the mode of obtaining the information afterwards detailed. The rest of the work is entitled to considerable praise, although it is not so methodical and uniform, nor so pure in point of diction, as the editor might have rendered it, had

not a desire of affording early gratification to curiosity hastened its publication. It abounds in important and valuable information, which the English reader cannot find elsewhere, respecting a princess who, for thirty-five years, sustained a distinguished part on the scene of European politics, and by her wars, negotiations, and intrigues, extended the before-immense monarchy of Russia to a most formidable size; and it gives a particular account of the useful institutions which she established for the diffusion of knowledge, and meliorating the conditions of her subjects. But we think that the editor has been too partial to the character of his heroine. The proofs which her reign displays of an insatiable ambition and love of aggrandisement, detract greatly from her claim to be "one of the greatest characters that ever filled a throne;" and the annals of her private life, particularly the history of her system of favouritism, will not lead the reader to admire either her morality or her delicacy. To each of these volumes is added an appendix, consisting of public documents respecting Russia, state papers, private letters, and some notes in addition to those interspersed throughout the work.

"The History of the Reign of Peter III. and Catherine II. of Russia," vol. I. is also a translation from the French original, enlarged with explanatory notes, and brief memoirs of illustrious persons. Were it not for the superior recommendations accompanying the last mentioned article, this work would prove a very acceptable present to the English reader.

The "Memoirs of the Life and Administration of Sir Robert Walpole, Earl of Orford, with original Correspondence, &c. by William Coxe,

Coxe, M. A. F. R. S. &c." in 3 vols. quarto, are the production of an author, whose literary reputation is sufficiently known to the public, to secure a very favourable reception to his labours. The sources of information to which he had access were important and curious, and have enabled him to throw much light on a period of more than forty years in the history of this country. Of these three volumes, the first alone contains the Memoirs, which are divided into eight periods: commencing with the birth of Walpole in 1676, and terminating successively at the accession of George I. in 1714; the commencement of the South-Sea scheme in 1720; the death of George I. in 1727; the resignation of lord Townshend in 1730; the dissolution of parliament in 1734; the death of queen Caroline in 1737; the resignation of sir Robert Walpole in 1742; and his death in 1745. In filling up his plan, Mr. Coxe has displayed much diligence of investigation, judgment in discriminating motives and causes of action, and a commendable share of candour and impartiality. He has also discovered the hand of a master, in the portraits which he has drawn of the principal public characters, who were the friends or the opponents of sir Robert. And we can venture to promise, that to readers in general, and particularly to historians and to politicians, his Memoirs will afford abundant gratification. Different opinions, indeed, will be formed of the legitimacy of some of his deductions from his premises; and to some of his sentiments and remarks on the leading measures of sir Robert Walpole's administration, we are by no means disposed to subscribe. The

latter do not always appear to us to be reconcileable with the principles of true whiggism, which we have uniformly avowed: We advert particularly to what occurs on the subject of the memorable septennial bill. And we do not think that he has satisfactorily vindicated Walpole from the charges brought against him, of speculation and corruption. The 2d and 3d volumes consist of original correspondence, and authentic documents never before published, from the collections belonging to the different branches of the Walpole and Townshend families; from the Stanhope, Middleton, Melcombe, and Egremont papers, &c. &c.; which are divided into eight periods, corresponding with the periods in the narratives, for the sake of facility of reference. Prefixed to the second volume are four engraved plates, containing fac-similes of the hand-writings of George I., George II., queen Caroline, sir Robert Walpole, the Pretender, and of many others, whose letters appear in the correspondence.

"The Lives of the English Regicides, and other Commissioners of the pretended High Court of Justice, appointed to sit in Judgment upon their Sovereign King Charles I. by the Rev. Mark Noble, F. A. S. &c." in 2 vols. are dedicated "to the regicides of France," to whom he holds out the fate of their prototypes as the prelude to their own, unless his warnings excite them to a sincere repentance, and to make their peace by tendering their influence in bringing back their king. Whether they will hear, or whether they will forbear, the author has delivered his soul. "In writing these lives," says Mr. Noble, "I have separated the men from the crime; I have

have traduced none, how guilty forever; I have spoken from the plainest facts. I have written of them, not from what their enemies have given us, but chiefly from the public records, from state records, from such authorities that cannot be called in question." This is bold assertion, and more than a dispassionate examination of his authorities, independently of those of which he was ignorant, or overlooked, can justify. And his comments and remarks on the facts which he has adduced, are frequently partial and illiberal. They are so particularly in the instances of general Ludlow, and Algernon Sydney. These lives include "most of the remarkable characters which occur among the republican party during the usurpation." The particulars of some of them are detailed at considerable length, but supply us with no new information. Those of others, are brief extracts from his fuller materials in his memoirs of the Cromwells. They appear to have been compiled by the author, with a view to the present state of the political world; to put the good people of these kingdoms on their guard against the attacks of "canting devotees," as well as "pretended philosophers." And they partake more of the language and spirit of political philippics, than of calm, unprejudiced, biographical memoirs. Mr. Noble's style and phraseology are exceedingly uncouth and incorrect.

The object of the next work which we have to announce is, to establish the claims of the author, in opposition to those of the earl of Galloway, on the death of the cardinal York, who cannot have any legitimate issue, to the honours of chief of the house of

Stuart, of lineal descendant, and true representative of the ancient kings of Scotland. To readers in general such a subject will prove very uninteresting, notwithstanding the acknowledged erudition and ingenuity which the author has lavished upon it. The title of his work is "Genealogical History of the Stewarts, from the earliest Period of their authentic History to the present Times. Containing a particular Account of the Origin and successive Generations of the Stuarts of Darnley, Lennox, and Aubigny, and of the Stuarts of Castelmilk; with Proofs and References; an Appendix of relative Papers, and a Supplement, containing Copies of various Dispensations found in the Vatican at Rome, in the Course of a Search made by the Author in the Year 1789; particularly Copies of two very interesting Dispensations, which had long been sought for in vain, relating to Robert the Stewart of Scotland (King Robert II.), his much-contested Marriages with Elizabeth More and Euphemia Ross. To which is prefixed a Genealogical Table relative to the History. By Andrew Stuart, Esq. M. P. With a Genealogical Table of the Stewarts, commencing with Walter, the son of Alan, the Stewart of Scotland," &c. &c.

"The Life of Edmund Burke, comprehending an impartial Account of the Literary and Political Efforts, and a Sketch of the Conduct and Character of his most eminent Associates, Coadjutors, and Opponents, by Rob. Bisset, LL.D." is honourable to the author's industry and literary talents, and furnishes us with a greater variety of interesting particulars respecting the private character of that remarkable man, than were afforded by

by Mr. McCormick's Memoirs, which we noticed in our last volume. In obtaining these it seems, that the author was assisted by the editor of "the Posthumous Works," and by other gentlemen who lived in strict habits of intimacy with Mr. Burke, or with his son. And he does not appear to have overlooked in his narrative, any of the important circumstances of Mr. Burke's literary and political life. But he has blended these with too much extraneous matter, which, although frequently entertaining and instructive, might have been spared without any injury to the proper object of his undertaking. We allude to his excursive remarks and disquisitions, and to his displays of critical skill; which may be allowed to bear testimony to the various information and abilities of the author, but which were unnecessary in a biographical production. Dr. Bisset espouses the same political principles, and the same political prejudices, with Mr. Burke; and he loses no opportunity of defending the consistency, "from the beginning to the end, of his intellectual, moral, and political efforts." But notwithstanding the ingenuity with which he has laboured this favourite point, we cannot compliment him on his success. If Edmund Burke was consistent, we can form no idea of any species of political versatility and delinquency, which may not be vindicated and applauded. But his own public conduct, which is fresh in the memory of our readers, and not our opinion, nor Dr. Bisset's "ratiocination," must determine the question. The style and phraseology of this work, are frequently too studied and pompous to be pleasing to the reader.

The "Memoirs of the Author of

a Vindication of the Rights of Woman, by William Godwin," are a singular tribute of respect to the memory of a well beloved wife. The subject of them was a woman of undoubted talents and genius, and possessed of many excellent qualities. For the praise which he bestows upon the former, notwithstanding that it may be thought exaggerated, and for the sensibility with which he speaks of the latter, we find no difficulty in accounting. But she was one who, unhappily for herself, seems never to have had those good principles instilled into her mind, which would have enabled her to controul and govern her passions; and who, under the influence of a warm constitution, and warm imagination, formed to herself notions of female delicacy, and the intercourse between the sexes, in direct variance with those generally adopted by the world, and incompatible, in the opinion of all old fashioned moralists, with the order and well-being of society. Upon those notions she acted in life: and her husband has thought proper to present the public with a picture of her love adventures, and of some other extraordinary circumstances, which were whispered concerning her while living, but which the good natured part of mankind were willing to resolve into scandal and calumny. This appears to us to be a very extraordinary method of doing honour to her memory. And we should be sorry, could we suppose the moral taste of the world to be so vitiated, as that these Memoirs would be much read, without exciting lively emotions of disgust and concern.

The "Anecdotes of the last Twelve Years of the Life of J. J. Rousseau, originally published in the Journal de Paris, by Citizen Corancez,

Corancez, translated from the French," will be found interesting and entertaining, as they display some striking peculiarities in the sentiments and manners of that extraordinary man. They have been published in consequence of the recent revival, among the French literati, of the controversy respecting the personal character of Rousseau; and are intended to vindicate him from aspersions cast on his memory, by malevolence, or resentment, or the misapprehensions of those who were shocked at his eccentricities. The letter which accompanies them, written by Rousseau's widow, satisfactorily refutes the different reports that his death was hastened by an act of suicide, and shows it to have been occasioned by a ferous apoplexy.

"The Life of St. Columba, the Apostle and Patron Saint of the Ancient Scots and Picts, and Joint Patron of the Irish, commonly called Column-Kille, the Apostle of the Highlands, by John Smith, D. D." was originally written in Latin, by the saint's successors, Cummin and Adomnan. Their memoirs, however, like the lives of the other numerous saints in the Roman calendar, abound too much in the marvellous to meet with implicit credit in the present day. Dr. Smith, who appears unwilling to lose the advantage of any treatise which, in his view of things, tends to display the power of divine grace upon the soul, conceived, that by separating fact from fable, he might render the life of the patron saint of the Highlands a reasonable and useful publication. As we have not seen the original, we can form no judgment of the portion of fable of which he has disencumbered it; but we can assure our readers, that he has retained sufficient of the

wonderful to satisfy those who possess an ample share of credulity.

The "Authentic Memoirs of the late Mr. Charles Macklin, Comedian, &c. by Francis Asprey-Congreve," appear to merit the epithet assumed in the title, and present the reader with a short detail of entertaining particulars respecting that veteran of the stage; in his various characters of actor, author, tavern-keeper, teacher of declamation, &c.

The second volume of "Biographical Anecdotes of the Founders of the French Republic, and of other eminent Characters, who have distinguished themselves in the Progress of the Revolution," is written in the same spirit, and with the same impartiality as the preceding, which was announced in our last year's Register. For the materials, the editor has been chiefly indebted "to the communications of various intelligent foreigners, several of whom were active in the scenes they have described." Some of the same names will be found to occur in it, as have already engaged the attention of the biographer: but the particulars under them have been drawn "from sources at once new and valuable," and have been composed without "useless repetition."

"Earl Moira, by a Son of St. Patrick," so far as it is entitled to be classed among biographical productions, contains an animated, but, in respect to style and phraseology, not always unaffected, sketch of his lordship's history; and a warm eulogium on his virtues as a man, his talents as a military commander, and his policy as a statesman. The principal object of the author, however, is to defend the earl's political principles and conduct; and, particularly, in the ineffectual attempt lately made by him to bring
about

about a change of system in the government of Ireland.

The "Literary Memoirs of Living Authors of Great Britain, arranged according to an Alphabetical Catalogue of their Names, and including a List of their Works, with occasional Opinions upon their Literary Character," in 2 vols. are not ill written, on the whole, and contain many anecdotes that will interest and gratify the curiosity of the public. But with respect to several of the characters which the author has undertaken to pourtray, his information is very defective; persons of similar names are frequently mistaken for each other; and his list of their productions is exceedingly inaccurate. And what is a more serious objection, his criticisms and remarks are essentially defective in point of candour and impartiality. This observation is in part applicable to his inflated panegyrics on some authors, whose literary exertions certainly entitled them to respectful notice; and more particularly so to what he has advanced relative to the talents, opinions, and views of others, who fall short of his standard of political orthodoxy.

The "Biographical Memoirs of Eighty Living Public Characters, of 1798," are evidently the productions of different authors, and possess different degrees of merit. Some of them are full and accurate in point of information; judicious in their literary and critical strictures; and exhibit well-drawn and appropriate characters of their respective subjects. On other articles in the volume before us, we can bestow but a very moderate share of commendation. These memoirs are not written under the uniform influence of any particular theological or political bias. A Pitt and a Fox, a

Horsey and a Priestley, a Watson and a Wakefield, meet respectively with their advocates and panegyrists.

The "New and General Biographical Dictionary, containing an Historical and Critical Account of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Persons in every Nation, particularly the British and Irish, from the earliest Accounts of Time to the present Period, &c." in fifteen volumes, is a new and greatly enlarged edition of an useful and entertaining work, with the merits of which the public are sufficiently acquainted. The articles which are either entirely new, or altered and improved, amount to above three thousand four hundred in number; and afford satisfactory evidence of the diligence and care used in compiling them. To the man of business, to the man of leisure, and to the scholar, they will prove an acceptable present. From the preface we learn, that the first five volumes were edited by one gentleman, and the remaining ten by two others, who chose to take them alternately. This information will enable the reader to account for occasional dissanances in opinion, which he will meet with in some of the new articles.

The new edition of "the Gentleman's and Connoisseur's Dictionary of Painting, containing a complete Collection, and Account, of the most distinguished Artists who have flourished in the Art of Painting at Rome, Venice, Naples, Florence, and other Cities of Italy, &c. from the Year 1250, when the Art of Painting was revived by Cimabue, to the Year 1767, &c. by the Rev. M. Pilkington, A. M." will also be received with pleasure by the public, both on account of the celebrity and scarcity of the work

work itself, and of the additions which have been made to it. These additions form a supplement, containing "anecdotes of the latest and most celebrated artists, including several by lord Orford; also remarks on the present state of painting, by James Barry, esq. R. A. professor of painting in the Royal Academy." In this list, several artists of reputation, who died since the first appearance of the original work, have been improperly omitted; and the articles devoted to others are much less copious and satisfactory than they might have been rendered, without any great labour or difficulty. But of those individuals, who are certainly entitled to rank among our most celebrated artists, the accounts will be found sufficiently full and interesting; and will present the reader with a variety of information and remarks, collected from numerous sources, or suggested by the editor's judgment and taste, that will be found instructive and amusing. Mr. Barry's remarks are part of a work which we shall have to notice in some future page, in which he severely ridicules the discovery of the Venetian secret of painting, which the president of the royal academy, and several of the academicians are bound under heavy penalties not to disclose; and strenuously recommends a public "collection of exemplars and materials of information and study, as absolutely and indispensably necessary for advancing and perfecting the arts of painting and sculpture in a national academy."

"The British Nepos, or Youth's Mirror, being Select Lives of Illustrious Britons, who have been distinguished by their Virtues, Talents, or remarkable Progress in Life, with incidental and practical Reflections, for the Use of Schools,

by William Mavor, LL. D." is compendious, and well written, and judiciously adapted to the object which the author had in view. Such a work might be advantageously introduced into British seminaries of education.

When we come to such publications of the year as belong to the head of Antiquities and Topography, we meet with "a Vindication of Homer, and of the ancient Poets and Historians who have recorded the Siege and Fall of Troy, in Answer to Two late Publications of Mr. Bryant, by J. B. S. Morritt, Esq." This very able and dispassionate production is divided into two parts. In the first part, Mr. Morritt minutely follows Mr. Bryant through the principal arguments and conclusions, by which he endeavours to overturn the generally received opinions respecting the existence of Asiatic Troy, and the authenticity of the leading facts in the history of the Trojan war; and, in our judgment, refutes them with equal erudition, ingenuity, and candour. In the second part, he successfully defends the geographical accuracy of Homer, by a comparative view of Strabo's description, the investigations of modern travellers, particularly M. Chevalier, and his own inquiries on the scene of the Phrygian Troad. In this part of his work, although he dissents in some particulars from the calculations and conjectures of gentlemen, who, with the same veneration for Homer, and with the same spirit of industrious research, have visited that classical spot, he agrees with them in their general conclusions and result. On the whole, we conceive, that Mr. Morritt, by the share which he has taken in this controversy, has rendered important service

vice to the interests of literature, and to the cause of truth, by confirming the foundations of historic testimony.

In our Registers for the years 1793 and 1796, we apprised our readers of the publication of the 1st, 2d, and 3d volumes of "Dissertations and Miscellaneous Pieces relating to the History and Antiquities, &c. of Asia," which were selected from the 1st, 2d, and 3d volumes of the "Asiatic Researches," printed at Calcutta. During the present year a fourth volume has appeared, under the above title, comprehending the whole of the fourth volume of the Transactions of the Bengal Society. Among the papers contained in it, which properly belong to this department of our work, are two learned discourses by the late sir William Jones, curious and pregnant with instruction, on Asiatic history, civil and natural, and on the philosophy of the Asiatics; an important paper on the traces of the Hindu language and literature among the Malays, by William Marsden, esq. which illustrates the diffusion of the Sanscrit tongue, from the shores of Madagascar to those of Easter Island, in the South Sea; an account of the cave in the island of Elephanta, by J. Coddington, esq.; and a very learned and ingenious dissertation on Semiramis, the origin of Mecca, &c. from the Hindu sacred books, by lieutenant Francis Wilford, which is inserted among the selections under the head of Antiquities in our present volume. The rest of the volume consists of a variety of articles relative to the manners and customs of nations, geography, astronomy, natural history, and botany, too numerous to be distinctly noticed by us, and abounding in information and enter-

tainment. The account of the Inhabitants of the hills near Rajamahall, by lieutenant Thomas Shaw; of the islands of Nancowry and Comarty, and of the Andaman Isles, by lieutenant H. Colebrooke; the same gentleman's treatise on the duties of a faithful Hindu widow; and sir John Shore's communication respecting some extraordinary facts, customs, and practices of the Hindus, will prove particularly acceptable to readers in general.

The treatise entitled "the Ancient History of Ireland, proved from the Sanscrit Books of the Brahmins of India, by Gen. Vallancey," constitutes the second part of Mr. Maurice's publication, entitled "Sanscrit Fragments," already noticed among the theological productions of the present year. The object of it is to show, that the British isles are described, and their history adverted to, in the sacred volumes of the Hindus. Such is the opinion of captain Wilford, founded on his construction of some extracts from the Puranas; and this opinion general Vallancey endeavours to confirm, and to apply in corroboration of some of his own assertions and conjectures, in his vindication of the History of Ireland. Although we are far from being satisfied with our author's reasonings and conclusions, we are not disposed to dispute captain Wilford's opinion, that the topographical and historical researches of the ancient Brahmins extended to the British isles. Were we to confess our scepticism on that subject, it would ill become us, with our scanty information, to pronounce any definitive judgment, especially after the high commendation passed by sir William Jones on the talents and learning of that gentleman, in one

of his annual discourses to the Asiatic Society: in which, advert- ing to his labours and those of Mr. Davies, another able oriental scholar, he said, "we may expect the most important discoveries from two of our members; concerning whom it may be safely asserted, that if our society should have produced no other advantage than the invitation given to them for the public display of their talents, we should have a claim to the thanks of our country, and of all Europe."

The "Illustrations of the Manners and Expences of Ancient Times in England, in the 15th, 16th, and 17th Centuries, deduced from the Accompts of Churchwardens, and other authentic Documents, collected from various Parts of the Kingdom, with explanatory Notes," are the result of the inquiries and industry of the indefatigable Mr. Nichols, and will afford entertainment to those who possess the genuine spirit of antiquarian lore. We should have been content, indeed, with a selection from the mass: but this, perhaps, is to be attributed to our want of true taste, and proper ardour in such pursuits.

"The Baronage of Scotland, containing an Historical and Genealogical Account of the Gentry of that Kingdom, collected from the Public Records and Chartularies of the County, the Records of private Families, and the Works of our best Historians, illustrated with Engravings of the Coats of Arms," vol. I. folio, will be acceptable, not only to the student in heraldry, but to those who are of opinion that "the genius, the virtues, and the achievements of eminent men ought to be remembered; and even those, who, though not prominent in public affairs, or engaged in

pursuits interesting to strangers, had, in their private sphere, demeaned themselves with propriety, and supported the line of an ancient family with respectability, ought not to be forgotten." The volume before us is confined to the lesser barons, or to the baronets, and other freeholders of ancient descent, who were entitled by the constitution of Scotland, as well as the greater barons, or nobility, to sit and vote in the Scottish parliament. To the labours of sir Robert Douglas, the greater part of this volume is to be attributed: and that part the most defective in point of arrangement and perspicuity. From the industry and ability of the editors of the remaining part, we are led to expect, that the completion of the work will reflect credit on the parties concerned in it, and entitle it to the patronage of the ancient Scottish families in particular, and to adepts in historical learning in general.

With respect to the "Antiquities of Ionia, Part II. published by the Dilletanti Society," in large folio, with numerous plates, we can only state that we have seen the volume announced, but have not yet been so fortunate as to meet with it. This notice of it, however, will be sufficient for the antiquary and connoisseur.

Mr. Salmon's "Description of the Works of Art of Ancient and Modern Rome, particularly in Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting, to which is added, a Tour through the Cities and Towns in the Environs of that Metropolis, &c." in two volumes. Vol. I. is a work on which the author has bestowed considerable labour, in collecting his information and collating the result of his own observations with the best authorities. And

it is embellished with numerous engravings from original designs. But it appears to great disadvantage, whether considered as a literary production, or more particularly as a guide to an accurate acquaintance with Roman antiquities, when compared to Mr. Lunniden's "Remarks," noticed in our last volume.

The next work which we have to introduce to our readers, is "the History and Antiquities of Staffordshire, compiled from the MSS. of Huntbach, Loxdale, Bishop Lytton, and other Collections of Dr. Wilkes the Rev. T. Fielde, &c. including Bede's Survey of the County, and the approved Parts of Dr. Plott's Natural History, the whole brought down to the present Time, &c. by the Rev. Stebbing Shaw, B. D. F. A. S. &c." vol. I. This volume, which is a valuable addition to our British topographical collections, has been long expected by the public, and affords abundant evidence of the author's assiduity and diligence, in supplying those fond of antiquarian researches with accurate local information, and readers in general with instruction and amusement. Besides the treasures of his predecessors, mentioned in the title page, Mr. Shaw was favoured with most liberal communications from many eminent characters, to whom he makes due acknowledgments; and he does not seem to have neglected any important materials for "establishing certainty on most points, and a rational degree of probability on the rest," with respect to the subjects that properly belong to a county history. Of the contents and plan of the volume before us, the author's own information will convey the best idea. It contains "a copious introduction, or general history, from the remotest to the

present time (not entirely finished, since in order to render the account of the mines, manufactories, canals, &c. more complete, it was necessary to defer a part to the second volume, with which it will be given, paged to bind up with this); to which is added an appendix of the principal and most curious general records, with a list of sheriffs, from the 1st of Henry II. to the year 1797, inclusive, and of the county members, as far as they could be collected. Then follows the ancient and modern history of thirty parishes in the hundred of Offlow, arranged geographically, with an appendix of the most curious charters, &c. &c." This volume is illustrated by an accurate and well executed map of the county, on a scale of half an inch to a mile, sixty-one other copperplates, and a copious index.

In our Register for the year 1795, we informed our readers of the publication of vol. I. and part 1. of vol. II. of Mr. Nichols's comprehensive, laborious, and valuable "History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester, &c." During the present year that author has published part 2. of the second volume, containing the history of Garte Hundred; in which he has collected a vast fund of historical, topographical, and other curious and entertaining matter, which will abundantly gratify the reader in the perusal. The protraction of this branch of Mr. Nichols's multifarious labours, will not be found to diminish the reputation which he has acquired by his topographical productions. Although we are necessarily precluded from entering into particulars respecting the contents of the present volume, we cannot avoid mentioning, that besides the history of Garte Hundred,

nearly one third of the whole is employed on an interesting and entertaining account of the religious foundations in Leicester.

The "Survey of the Province of Moray, Historical, Geographical, and Political," is the joint production of two clergymen, the reverend Mr. Grant, of Elgin, distinguished by his knowledge of genealogy and antiquities, and the reverend Mr. Leslie, of Darkland, noted for the attention which he has paid to the theory and practice of agriculture. From persons so qualified, useful and interesting information may reasonably be expected, concerning a district with which they are intimately acquainted; and such information will be found in the volume before us. It is divided into four chapters. The first treats of the ancient inhabitants of the province, its history, population, &c.; the second of its antiquities; the third of its present state; and the fourth of the state of agriculture, roads, and hints for improvement.

The next article which we have to notice is a curious production, for which the antiquary will acknowledge himself to be much indebted to the editor. It was written by Mr. George Martine, of Clermont, who seems to have held some office under archbishop Sharp; and is now published for the first time, from the original MS. in the possession of David Martine, of Edentide, esq. representative of the author, after being collated with other MSS. in the Harleian library, the university library, and in the possession of Dr. Adamson, professor of civil history. The title of it is, "Reliquiæ Divi Andree, or the State of the venerable and primitive See of Saint Andrews; containing an Account of the Rise, Advance-

ment, Dignities, Honours Jurisdictions, Privileges, and Revolutions of this ancient see; and of the Church Benefices of old belonging thereto, in the books now belonging to the same, &c. with some historical Memoirs of some of the most famous Prelates and Primate thereon. By a true though unworthy Son of the Church." This work is illustrated with three well executed plates.

In our Register for the year 1791, we expressed a favourable opinion of a little treatise employed on "The History and Antiquities of Tewkesbury." During the present year, Mr. W. Dyde, the printer and editor, has published a second edition of that work; in which he "has new-modelled and extended his subject matter under almost every head," and added some pleasing, and neatly executed illustrative and ornamental engravings. In the form which it now wears, it deserves to be commended as a desirable addition to the public stock of topographical productions, from which readers in general may derive both information and entertainment.

The same character is applicable to "the History and Antiquities of Scarborough, with Views and Plans, by Thomas Hinderwell." The text, considered either in respect to the materials, the arrangement, or the style, is entitled to commendation; and the excellence of the engravings which accompany it, rises much above mediocrity.

The contents of the next article which we have to notice, our readers may learn from its title, which is a "brief Account of Strafford upon Avon; with a particular Description and Survey of the Collegiate Church, the Mausoleum of Shakspeare, containing all the Ar-

chæological

morial Bearings and Monumental Inscriptions therein." To which is added, by way of appendix, "some account of the lives of three eminent prelates who derive their surnames from Stratford, the place of their nativity." This little work contains some curious and interesting particulars, compiled by an anonymous writer, who appears equal to more important literary exertions.

The editor of "the History of the incorporated Towns and Parishes of Gravesend and Milton, in the County of Kent, selected with Accuracy from Topographical Writers, and enriched from MSS. hitherto unnoticed, &c." makes no pretensions to literary merit, but only to industry in collecting information, not uninteresting to the inhabitants of the metropolis, and more particularly so to those in the parishes described. In this respect his exertions are entitled to praise. From one of the records which he has selected it appears, that in the reign of Edward I. the legal fare paid by passengers between London and Gravesend, was no more than one halfpenny; and that many watermen were fined for extortion, in taking a penny.

Of Mr. Ironside's specimen of parochial collections for the county of Middlesex, which forms the sixth number of "Miscellaneous Antiquities (in continuation of the *Bibliotheca Typographica Britannica*), containing the History and Antiquities of Twickenham," we cannot speak in any high terms of approbation. Exclusive of the memoirs of the learned George Costard, formerly vicar of that place, he has added little interesting or important to the account given by Mr. Lysons, in his "*Environs of London*;" and he has devoted too

many of his pages to matter that is utterly unworthy of a place in a county history. His tedious extracts or names from the parish register, list of principal inhabitants in 1789, and verbatim copies of epitaphs of all description, merit that character.

The "*List of the principal Castles and Monasteries in Great Britain*," by James Moore, Esq. F. A. S." will prove an acceptable and useful present to the student in antiquities. We need only observe respecting it, that the author has, at intervals, during a course of several years, employed great care and attention in rendering it correct and accurate; and that the counties are placed in alphabetical order, and the buildings most worthy of notice marked with an asterisk.

The "*Account of the Cathedral Church of Exeter, illustrative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Building*," is published by the Society of Antiquaries, and is the first of a series, in which it is intended to give accurate measures of the principal ecclesiastical buildings in England. It is an elegant, and indeed splendid production, consisting of eleven large plates, and the requisite accompaniment of letter-press, executed in a high style of excellence.

Mr. Milner's "*Dissertation on the modern Style of altering ancient Cathedrals, as exemplified in the Cathedral of Salisbury*," suggests a variety of important observations and remarks, which will be found perfectly coincident with the sentiments and feelings of a true antiquary. They will excite no small indignation in his mind, at the wanton and unnecessary liberties taken with the monuments of former times; which, if continued to be practised according to the dictates

of modern taste, will soon leave no genuine unadulterated remains of the architectural genius of our ancestors in this island. We need not desecrate on the sources of improvement and pleasure, of which posterity must be robbed by such a—sacrilege we had almost said. The jealousy of the historian, as well as the lover of science, ought to be aroused against that species of innovation and for those purposes we consider the dissertation of Mr. Milner to be admirably adapted.

To our list of travels and voyages published during the year 1798, we must assign “the authentic Account of the Embassy of the Dutch East-India Company, to the Court of the Emperor of China, in the Years 1794 and 1795, &c. taken from the Journal of André Everhard Van Braam, Chief of the Direction of the Company, and second in the Embassy; translated from the original of M. L. E. Moreau de St. Mery,” in two vols. The visit to the court of Pekin recorded in these volumes, was undertaken subsequently to that of lord Macartney, and, for the greater part of the way, was made by a different route. From Canton the embassy proceeded to the capital, partly by water carriage, on the canals and rivers, but chiefly over land, “across parts of the empire of China, which never yet were marked with the footsteps of an European, and where his inquisitive eye never yet had an opportunity of making the smallest observation.” And on its return, until the detail is suddenly broken about five weeks before the termination of the journey, a considerable part of the progress was made over equally unknown ground. Mr. Van Braam calls his narrative a “constant depository of facts, represented with the most

strict regard to truth;” and it bears strong internal evidence of meriting such a character. It is written in the form of a journal, in which the circumstances related were committed to paper in the order as they presented themselves, without any “studied arrangement, or combination over which the usual vanity of an author might have exerted its influence.” It confirms many of the peculiar circumstances relative to the Chinese government, manners, state of arts, &c. detailed in the account of the British embassy; while it presents us with some additional traits in the character of that extraordinary people, and a more minute account of some of the objects of curiosity at the imperial court. The jealousy, however, which the government of China entertain of foreigners, and their diligence in obstructing their inquiries, are as conspicuous in the volumes before us as those of sir George Staunton. But we are led to hope for farther interesting information on the subject of the Chinese empire, from the communications of M. V. Braam. During a long residence in that country as supercargo, or as chief of the factory of the Dutch East-India Company, as well as in the course of this embassy, he seems to have spared neither pains nor expence in making observations, instituting inquiries, and employing intelligent artists, in order to acquire as accurate an idea as possible in his circumstances of the state of the country, architecture, peculiar customs, ceremonies, &c. &c. And from the notice given at the end of the second volume, of a collection of Chinese drawings in his possession, amounting to above eighteen hundred in number, we may flatter ourselves that much light will soon be

be thrown by him on the objects of European curiosity in that singular country. Perhaps the declaration of the editor may seem rather hyperbolical, that "China would be better known by them alone, than by all that has been written concerning it to the present day." We are, nevertheless, convinced, that they constitute some of the richest treasures ever brought from that country; and that we shall receive no small gratification, when we shall have the opportunity of comparing the editor's account with the collection itself. Prefixed to these volumes are a map of the route of the embassy, and an useful collection of explanatory notes, in the form of a dictionary of terms, arranged in alphabetical order.

The "Journal of Mr Samuel Holmes, Serjeant-Major of the 11th Light Dragoons, during his Attendance as one of the Guards on Lord Macartney's Embassy to China and Tartary, &c. printed without Addition, Abridgment, or Amendment, from the original Diary kept during that Expedition," is recommended by the plainness and simplicity of the author's narrative, and the elegant form in which it is introduced to the public, for his benefit, under the patronage of Sir William Young. Although we cannot say that it conveys any very important information, in addition to what has been already published by the historians of that embassy, yet it is deserving of encouragement, as from the peculiar nature of China and its institutions, the observations of different persons are necessary to enable us to acquire a tolerable knowledge of them. And every different describer of travels through that country, may furnish

us with some one of its features, which, when combined, may form a portrait in a considerable degree resembling the original.

The "Journey from Bengal to England, through the Northern Parts of India, Kashmere, Afghanistan, and Persia, and into Russia, by the Caspian Sea, by George Forster, in the Civil Service of the Honourable the East-India Company," in 2 volumes quarto, is written in the epistolary form. The author, who travelled in the different characters of a Mogul officer, a Turk, and a Christian merchant, appears to have been the first European who performed so difficult and dangerous a journey; and to have been peculiarly well qualified, from his intimate acquaintance with the Hindoo and Persian languages, and their dialects, to make those inquiries, which would enable him to form a judgment of the state of society in the different countries through which he passed. And we have every reason to be satisfied, that, as far as it relates to the facts and circumstances which fell under his observation, his work "has no tendency to discolour or misrepresent truth." The first volume contains the author's route from Calcutta to Kashmere, including sketches of the Hindu mythology, and abbreviated histories of the Rohillas, Shujah-ud-Dowlah, and the Sicques, or Seiks. The second volume contains a particular account of the Valley of Kashmere, long celebrated by the orientals as an earthly Paradise, but into which tyranny and vice have introduced oppression and misery; of the Afghan countries, which are rising into weight and importance in the scale of oriental politics; and the information collected, and the incidents which took

took place during Mr. Forster's journey through Cabul, Candahar, Herat, the capital of Korafan, the north-eastern provinces of Persia, over the Caspian to Astracan, and thence by land through Mesow to Petersburg. "Science can receive but a slender aid" from our author's labours. But they afford much novel and interesting information, respecting the different regions which he visited, and the peculiarities of the oriental character and manners; and they abound in just observations and lively remarks. They are not entirely free, indeed, from inaccuracies in point of historical narration, language, and topography. These volumes are illustrated by a large map of Mr. Forster's route, from Loldong, on the Ganges, to Petersburg, constructed by Mr. Wilford, of the Bengal corps of artillery; but they want the necessary accompaniment of an index, or table of contents.

Of the "Voyage round the World, performed in the Years 1785—1788, by the *Bouffole* and *Astrolabe*, under the Command of J. F. G. de la Pérouse, published by order of the National Assembly, under the Superintendence of L. A. Milet-Mureau, &c." we have met with two translations, one in 2 volumes quarto, with a folio volume of charts and plates; and the other in 3 volumes octavo, illustrated with some of the charts and plates on a smaller scale. We are guilty of an anachronism in placing the former among the productions of the year 1798, since it was not published before the commencement of the year 1790. But as both translations fell in our way at the same time, and we were induced, from the superior correctness and elegance of the larger

work, to send it to our printer for the copy of the extract which we have given among our selections, we thought it best to confine to our present volume our account of this interesting publication. M. Pérouse, who was distinguished by his skill in navigation, his scientific accomplishments, his prudence, and affability of manners, was appointed to the command of the voyage detailed in these volumes, for the purposes of discovery, and the improvement of the natural and physical sciences. Under his orders were placed many able officers, mechanics, artists, and men of science; and he was furnished with a profusion of books, philosophical instruments, merchandise, &c. to insure success to his enterprise. Of his fate, and that of his companions, excepting so far as is related in the volumes before us, no certain information has been obtained. The particulars with which we are now gratified, were drawn up from detached parts of his journal, which were sent home by him at different intervals; various separate communications from himself, and the gentlemen who accompanied him; and different documents furnished by the Academy of Sciences, and the officers under government. The whole may be divided into three parts. The first consists of preliminary matter, such as introductions, instructions, memoirs, &c.; and extracts from some voyages undertaken by the Spaniards. Particular attention is due to the instructions and memoirs, on account of the geographical and scientific information which they discover. The second part contains the journal of M. Pérouse, from his departure from the road of Brest, August 1, 1785, until his arrival at Botany Bay, in
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New South Wales, January 26, 1788. During this period, our navigator successively visited the islands of Madeira, Teneriffe, Trinidad, and St. Catharine, on the coast of Brazil, whence he proceeded to the Bay of Concepcion, in Chili. From the Bay of Concepcion, after a short stay at Easter Island, and the Sandwich Isles, M. Pérouse bent his course to the north-western coasts of America, which he explored from nearly 60° north latitude to Monterey Bay, in California, in about 37° north latitude. From California he proceeded to Macao in China, to Manilla, and thence, through the Sea of Japan, and along the north-eastern coast of Tartary, of which he was the first known examiner, and the islands in the Sea of Jesso, to the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul in Kamtschatka. The remaining part of the journal includes the incidents which took place during his voyage southwards, by the Navigators' and Friendly Isles, to New South Wales. The third part of this work consists of valuable supplementary memoirs and letters of M. Pérouse, his companions, and correspondents; and nautical tables, showing the courses of the ships during their voyage. Our limits will not permit us to point out the important discoveries, interesting descriptions of countries, and of the manners of their inhabitants, and the extraordinary events with which our author's journal, and the accompanying papers abound. But we can assure our readers, that they will afford them ample gratification in the perusal; and that few accounts of voyages are equally replete with information and entertainment.—The numerous illustrative charts and plates are executed with great

accuracy and elegance. This observation is particularly applicable to the quarto edition; notwithstanding that the engravings which accompany the octavo edition, although fewer in number, are not devoid of merit.

The "Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean, and round the World, &c. undertaken by his Majesty's Command, and performed in the Years 1790—1795, in the Discovery Sloop of War, and armed Tender Chatham, under the Command of Capt. George Vancouver," in 3 vols. royal quarto, with a folio volume of maps and charts, contains much important and curious information, partly miscellaneous, but chiefly geographical, which stamps considerable value on the author's labours. Capt. Vancouver was educated in the nautical school of the immortal Cook; and in a variety of arduous services discovered such talents and abilities, as determined government to entrust to him the conduct of the voyage before us. One principal object of it was, finally to determine the long agitated question, whether an internal sea, or other navigable communication whatever, exist, as some navigators have asserted, and some philosophers have suspected, uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans through the continent of North America. And, in our opinion, he has satisfactorily determined it in the negative. His exertions, however, were not confined to this object alone, but diverted into numerous other channels; in which he was enabled considerably to add to our stores of geographical knowledge, and to present a new and interesting picture of several of the South-Sea Islands, the inhabitants of which have been materially altered

tered in their habits, dispositions, and views, by their intercourse with Europeans. The first volume contains an account of captain Vancouver's voyage to, and transactions at, the Cape of Good Hope, the south-western coasts of New Holland, New Zealand, Otaheite, the Sandwich Islands, and the coasts of New Albion; which last were minutely surveyed by him, in conformity to his instructions. In this volume also, we have particulars of the transactions respecting the cession of Nootka, which were not terminated till a future period. In the second volume we find a narrative of transactions at two Spanish settlements in New Albion; of a second visit to the Sandwich Islands, and of a second visit thence to the north; and of a survey of the American coasts from Nootka Sound, to about 57° of north latitude; and afterwards from Monterey in California, to the south-eastern extent of intended investigation, in about the latitude of 30° north. The third volume contains an account of a third voyage to the Sandwich Islands, when Owhyhee was formally ceded to the crown of Great Britain; the conclusion of the survey of the north-western coasts of America, from Cook's River to Port Conclusion, in about 56° north latitude; and the voyage to the southward, along the western coasts of America, to the port of Valparaiso in Chili; and thence, round Cape Horn, by the island of St. Helena, to England. In the various chapters into which these volumes are divided, we meet with a profusion of astronomical and nautical observations, the perfecting of which, together with his surveys, proved fatal to captain Vancouver:

for his industry and application, united to the anxieties attendant on such a tedious and difficult service, so affected his state of health, that he did not live long enough after his return, to see the impression of these volumes completed. The painful task of superintending what he left unfinished, devolved upon his brother. Among the miscellaneous contents of this work, the transactions at the Society and Sandwich Islands, the account of the Spanish missions in California, and of the visit to St. Jago, the capital of Chili, will be particularly acceptable to readers in general. Besides the folio volume of maps and charts, various well-executed and elegant plates, by some of our first artists, embellish captain Vancouver's narrative.

The next article which we have to introduce, is the production of a disciple of the same excellent school with the last-mentioned author, and is a valuable supplement to the list of British geographical productions. The object of it will be sufficiently explained by the title, which is, "a Voyage to the South Atlantic, and round Cape Horn into the Pacific Ocean, for the Purpose of extending the Spermaceti Whale Fisheries, and other Objects of Commerce, by ascertaining the Ports, Bays, Harbours, and Anchoring Births in certain Islands and Coasts in those Seas, at which the Ships of the British Merchants might be refitted. Undertaken and performed by Captain James Colnett, of the Royal Navy, in the Ship *Rattler*." In the prosecution of his plan, captain Colnett spent twenty-two months; during which he displayed great nautical skill, unwearied industry, and a patient spirit of investigation; and neglected

lected the examination of none of the islands and harbours from the Gallipagos, under the line, to the most southern latitudes, which properly fell in with the design of his expedition. The result of his labours is a mass of important and useful information, to those engaged in the speculation of the southern whale-fishery, accompanied with valuable remarks and observations relative to the economical and medicinal treatment of seamen in long voyages.

The abbé Spallanzani's "Travels in the two Sicilies, and some Part of the Apennines, translated from the original Italian," in 4 volumes, will prove an acceptable present to readers in general, and more particularly to the true friends of science. The celebrity of the author, as a naturalist, has been too well established by the publication of the results of his investigations in the animal and vegetable kingdoms, to render it necessary to enlarge on his extensive knowledge, accuracy and penetration, true philosophic spirit, and predominant love of truth. In the work before us, we have an account of his inquiries in the mineral kingdom. With the view of improving the public Imperial museum of natural history, in the university of Pavia, he resolved on devoting several months to an assiduous examination of the Phlegrean fields, mount *Ætna*, and the *Æolian* or *Lipari* islands. After an attentive observation of those volcanic regions, in the same manner in which he had accustomed himself to view other natural objects, he re-examined their products, on his return to Pavia, in the retirement of his study: and these volumes offer to the world the result of his researches, which combines a rich treasure of geogra-

phical, mineralogical, and chemical information. It is proper also to add, that the narrative of his travels is interspersed with much curious miscellaneous matter, which will afford instruction and entertainment to the inquisitive reader. In the first volume we have the particulars of the author's visit to mount *Vesuvius*, the *Phlegrean* fields, and mount *Ætna*; in the second, his observations on the *Lipari* islands; in the third, inquiries into the nature of *basaltes*, of the gases of volcanos, and the true causes of their eruptions; and in the fourth, a recapitulation of arguments for various hypotheses, a conclusion of the account of the *Lipari* isles, an account of the calamitous accidents which befel *Meßina* in consequence of the earthquake in 1783, observations on *Seylla* and *Charybdis*, and other miscellaneous particulars. The translation of these volumes is executed with fidelity; and the plates which illustrate the original, have been copied with exactness, but with a greater attention to elegance of workmanship.

The "Travels in the Year 1792, through France, Turkey, &c. by William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple," in two volumes, are an enlarged edition of a work noticed in this department of our Register for the year 1796.

The next article which we have to announce, is a republication of two curious ancient fragments, which will entertain the reader by the description they afford of the manners, and the characters they exhibit, of some of the most distinguished persons who flourished in the times to which they relate. It is entitled "Paul Hentzner's Travels in England, during the Reign of Queen Elizabeth, translated by Horace, late Earl of Oxford, and

and first printed by him at Strawberry hill; to which is now added, Sir Robert Naunton's *Fragmenta Regalia; or, Observations on Queen Elizabeth's Times and Favourites; with Portraits and Views.*" The typographical execution of this work is splendid, and the prints are pleasing, notwithstanding that some of them are no more than sketches.

The "Tour in Switzerland, or a View of the present State of the Governments and Manners of those Cantons, &c. by Helen Maria Williams," in two volumes, is the production of a fair writer, who is well known to possess a happy talent at blending together information and amusement, and conveying them to her readers in a form that is peculiarly pleasing and engaging. The contents of the volumes before us are miscellaneous: consisting, partly, of descriptions of the beauties, or stupendous phenomena, which arrest the eye of the traveller, through those alpine scenes; partly, of anecdotes, and reflections on men and manners; and principally, of disquisitions on the government and political state of the respective cantons. Miss Williams's descriptions are lively, sentimental, or sublime, according to the nature of the objects on which they are employed. Her anecdotes, and pictures of manners, are interesting and amusing; and particularly the contrasts which she has drawn between the simple monotony of Swiss habits, and the characteristic features of the modern Parisians. But to our authoress's dissertations on the governments of the different cantons, the greatest attention has been paid; and they would almost appear to have been written with the view of preparing men's minds for viewing, without surprise, the revolutions

which have taken place in Switzerland. They expose the defects and bad policy of the aristocratical, and some of the democratical cantons; and, from the proofs which they afford of the discontents which prevailed in the great mass of the people, enable us, without difficulty, to account for the ease with which the French became masters of that strong country. On the whole, these volumes will tend to increase, rather than diminish, the reputation which Miss Williams has derived from her different productions, which we have introduced to our readers in the order of their appearance.

The "Sketch of Modern France, in a Series of Letters to a Lady of Fashion, written in the Years 1796 and 1797, during a Tour through France, by a Lady, edited by C. L. Moody, LL.D. F. S. A." is an animated and entertaining publication, from which the reader may collect a tolerably adequate idea of the internal state of that country, of the new manners, of the generally prevalent opinions, and of the tone of conversation in private circles, under the change of system, civil and religious, introduced by the revolution. "Though they may not be strictly impartial, they appear to have been written under no reprehensible impressions. They abound more in plain undecorated narrative, than in deep and pointed reflection." And we add, that the remarks of the writer show, that she possesses an ingenious and cultivated mind, untinctured either by superstition, or its opposite extreme, and powerfully influenced by a spirit of benevolence.

Mr. Brooke's "Observations on the Manners and Customs of Italy, with Remarks on the vast Importance of British Commerce on that Continent, &c." offer little that is new,

new, or interesting, relative to the state of the country, the phenomena which engage the notice of strangers, or the habits and peculiarities of the inhabitants. They furnish us, indeed, with some amusing stories and anecdotes; and others, at which grave readers will shake their heads. But the principal object of the author is to extol the virtues of opium, and to recommend an unadulterated preparation of that drug, which he is so fortunate as to be able to procure, through the assistance of a friend, and which he is ready to administer, q. l. "in a variety of obstinate cases, according to the practice of Asia."

Mr. Feltham's "Tour through the life of Man, in 1797 and 1798," was undertaken by the author, in the character of a pedestrian traveller, and will supply the reader of his narrative with many desirable particulars respecting the ancient and modern history of the island, its constitution, laws, commerce, agriculture, fisheries, &c. and with a due mixture of amusement. But the author has not been sufficiently select in the choice, nor judicious in the arrangement of his materials; and some of his statements favour a little of credulity. This tour is embellished with a map of the island, and other plates.

The "Walk through Wales, in August, 1797, by the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath," is a well-written and lively publication, consisting of eighteen letters to a friend, giving an account of the most striking objects that engaged his notice, and the incidents which he met with during eighteen days progress through the principality. To examine the romantic ruins, and the scenes of beauty and sublimity which abound in that country, was

Mr. Warner's principal design in visiting it. And he has described the impressions which the view of them produced on his mind, with much animation and poetic feeling. He has, likewise, interspersed his pages with antiquarian remarks, historical details, comparisons of the manners of the modern Welch, with those of their Celtic ancestors, and interesting anecdotes. To each letter is prefixed an accurate sketch of the author's route, during the day, neatly engraved on wood.

Mr. Skrine's "Two successive Tours through the whole of Wales, with several of the adjacent English Counties, so as to form a comprehensive View of the Picturesque Beauty, the peculiar Manners, and the fine Remains of Antiquity, &c." in point of literary merit and typographical execution, is entitled to be classed with his "Successive Tours in the North of England," of which we gave a particular account in our Register for the year 1795. The information which it contains is accurate: on which account, taken in connexion with the extensiveness of the scenes which the author traversed, it deserves to be recommended as a proper companion to future travellers.

Mr. Woodward's "Recent Excursions, or Literary and Historical Sketches of Countenance, Character, and Country, in different parts of England and South Wales, interspersed with curious Anecdotes, embellished with upwards of one hundred characteristic and illustrative Prints," if they are not calculated to increase the reader's stock of knowledge and useful information, will furnish him with much entertainment. The stories which he has detailed, especially when illustrated by his numerous engravings, cannot easily
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fail of relaxing the most rigid muscles.

Mr. Gilpin's "Observations on the Western Parts of England, relative chiefly to Picturesque Beauty, &c." appear to have long lain hidden in the author's port-folio, and to be now brought to light, from the benevolent design of raising, by the profits of their sale, a fund for a charitable institution. This circumstance entitles them to a favourable reception, independently of the celebrity which the author has acquired, by the displays of correct judgment, and true taste, in his former productions of a similar kind. And the same circumstance prevents us from entering on a fallacious comparison of their merits, with those of the author's preceding labours; which have gratified and delighted us, and which we have noticed in our Registers for the years 1787, 1789, and 1791. We can honestly state, however, that they are not unworthy of "the venerable founder and master of the picturesque school," as Mr. Gilpin has been properly termed in one of our respectable periodical journals; and that they present us with appropriate and pleasing delineations of some of the most beautiful scenery in our island. With his narrative and descriptions the author has intermingled just and striking remarks, and entertaining anecdotes; and he has freely borrowed from other writers, whose works afforded him assistance in depicting domestic scenes, or supplied him with illustrative "contrasts taken from other countries." This volume is embellished with several beautiful washed etchings.

Mr. Samuel Ireland's "Picturesque Views on the River Wye, from its Source at Plinlimmon Hill, to its Junction with the Severn, be-

low Chepstow, &c." are a part of a series of publications, in which it is the author's design to give the history of the principal rivers of this country, illustrated with faithful delineations of such contiguous scenes, as charm the eye of taste and genius, and are worthy of the pencil of "the inquisitive, refined, and systematical amateur." In our Register for the year 1793, we announced the author's "Picturesque Views" on the river Thames and Medway, and explained his pretensions to praise in the different capacities of writer and artist. The volume before us is a proper companion to the preceding. It is, indeed, rendered more interesting and pleasing from the peculiar features of his present subject: the course of the Wye being universally allowed to offer to the traveller some of the most beautiful views that can be imagined, while it is "proudly eminent in the production of the sublime, of the grand, and majestic." Upon the whole, the descriptive parts of this work are not ill adapted to please, and the incidental anecdotes to amuse the reader. The typography is splendid, and the plates, which are thirty-one in number, are beautifully executed in aqua-tinta.

Dr. Mavor's "Historical Account of the most celebrated Voyages, Travels, and Discoveries, from the Time of Columbus to the present Period," in twenty volumes, small 12mo. was drawn up with a particular view to the instruction and amusement of young persons. It consists of selections and abridgements, chiefly from works of established reputation, concentrated into a comparatively narrow compass, and delivered "in uniform diction and connected narrative." From the different parts which we have examined,

examined, we can venture to pronounce that it is executed with judgment, and is well adapted to "satisfy without fatiguing, and to convey the most requisite information at a price too limited to be burdensome." These volumes are illustrated with a variety of pleasing engravings.

"The British Tourist's, or Traveller's, Pocket-Companion through England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, &c." by the same author, in five volumes, small 12mo. is a work compiled with similar ability and spirit, and accompanied with neat maps. Not only young persons, but travellers of every age, will find it useful and entertaining.

The utility of the following work, to those who travel either for business, or for amusement, and the peculiar care which has been taken to render it as correct and authentic as present information would admit, entitle it to a place in our annual catalogue. "Cary's New Itinerary; or an accurate Delineation of the Great Roads, both direct and cross, throughout England and Wales; with many of the principal Roads in Scotland. From an actual Admeasurement made by Command of his Majesty's Postmaster-general for Official Purposes; under the Direction and Inspection of Thomas Hasker, Esq. Surveyor, and Superintendant, of the Mail Coaches. To which is added, at the End of each Route, the Names of those Inns which supply Post Horses and Carriages, accompanied with a most extensive Selection of Noblemen's and Gentlemen's Seats; a List of the Packet Boats, and their Times of Sailing; copious Indexes, &c. &c."

From the numerous Political publications of the year, we shall, according to our annual practice, 1798.

select a few of the most important, for distinct, but brief notice.

The "Considerations upon the State of Public Affairs, at the Beginning of the Year 1798. Part the First, France;" part the second, "upon the Instructions of his Majesty's Plenipotentiary at Lille, and the Indemnity of Great Britain at the Peace;" part the third, "on the Domestic State and general Policy of Great Britain;" are written in a style of laboured and pompous eloquence, by an author who does not perfectly concur in opinion with any of the parties into which the political world is divided. He is, however, a decided hater of the French, whom he represents to be poltroons and dastards, and encourages his countrymen to despise their menaces, as the ravings of madmen. To the cession of the Netherlands, and to peace with the republicans, he is adverse, "till the enemy shall be spent and prostrate at our feet;" and he congratulates his countrymen on the breach of the negotiation at Lille, "as a prosperous defeat, a happy calamity, a fortunate disgrace." He would have us confine ourselves to a naval war, and rely on time, as our best friend. He sees every thing that is favourable to England in the state of Europe, and in our internal resources, provided that ministers exercise a proper economy; and he maintains that "the poor and industrious of every name have been indemnified by augmented wages, for every tax that reaches them; and ministers have taken the most laudable and exemplary care that these should be very few: our rich do not know what taxation is." Are these things so?

The "Letter to the Author of the Considerations" above mentioned,
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ed, from the French of M. de Calonne, is intended to show the mischievous consequences that would follow from Great Britain's withdrawing from continental exertions, and continuing only a naval war, while she depends on time for the dissolution of the power of France. Time, the author contends, is the enemy of England, and the ally of France; and he offers some able arguments in support of that opinion. M. Calonne's hopes of overthrowing the republic are founded on the exertions of a new confederacy, and the animosities and dissensions which are fomenting in France.

"The Question as it stood in March, 1793," is the title of a short, but comprehensive, able, and temperate pamphlet, which discusses the origin, the conduct, and the consequences to be apprehended from the prosecution of the present war. The statements of the author, and his conclusions, are intended to expose the measures and the policy of administration; but neither in his doctrines, nor his remarks, does he depart from the principles or spirit of a constitutional whig.

The author of "the State of the Country, in Autumn, 1793," is not ill-versed in the practice of writing, and the science of polemics. His sentiments of public men, however, and public measures, differ in the extreme from those of the last mentioned writer. Of the wisdom of government, and the happy state of our affairs, he has drawn a highly coloured picture. And while some poetical politicians, to rouse the energies of the continental powers against France, have contented themselves with making the deliverance of Europe the burden of their war song, his muse has

taken a bolder flight, and urged them to glory from the sublime motive of saving the world.

The "Examination of the Causes and Conduct of the present War with France, and of the most effectual Means of obtaining a secure and honourable Peace, &c." is a methodical, ingenious, and temperate defence of the views and conduct of ministry, but not entirely unmixed with illiberal, and even malignant insinuations against their political opponents. The means of peace, which he recommends, are vigorous efforts in prosecuting the war, to such extent, and in such manner, as to the wisdom of our present governors shall seem meet; and he assures us, that we have an "almost certain prospect of success."

The treatise, entitled "Peace in our Power, upon Terms not unreasonable, by Charles Baring, Esq." is not the production of a party writer, but of one who understands the true interests of his country, and has the good sense to prefer them to considerations of ambition, or of false pride. The terms to which he alludes are, the formal renunciation by his Britannic Majesty of the title of king of France; a solemn agreement with the powers of Europe and America, that in future neutral ships shall constitute neutral property, except in particular cases of contraband trade; and an offer to resign to France, and her allies, all our conquests, without reserve. Peace on such terms would be cheaply purchased.

The "speculative Sketch of Europe, translated from the French of M. Dumouriez," contains much information and curious political reasoning, on the interests and policy pursued by the different states of Europe and America, which deserves

erves the attention of the reader. Some parts of it, however, will be found highly contradictory and absurd; and none more so than such as reflect Great Britain, and offer plans for invasion. In the translator's strictures on the chapter "on England," he has justly exposed the folly, self-sufficiency, and ignorance in naval matters, which those plans discover. But in doing this, he has needlessly gone out of his way to pour abuse on opposition, and to exhibit effects of "moral bile," at least equal to those which he finds in the writings of the French ex-general.

The "Address to the People of Great Britain, by R. Watson, Lord Bishop of Landaff," is a popular appeal to the nation, written under the impression of alarm, occasioned by the serious aspect of public affairs, and intended to rouse them to energy and unanimity in defence of the country, and in support of the existing government. It embraces a variety of subjects; taxation, the necessity of continuing the war, the probability of our defeating the French should they invade this country, the necessity of preserving the union between Great Britain and Ireland, the attempts made by infidelity against religion, &c. &c. Many of his lordship's remarks, and much of his advice, breathe a fervent spirit of patriotism and of piety; but on some points he has hid himself open to severe animadversion. This he has met with in "a Reply to some Parts of the Bishop of Landaff's Address, &c. by Gilbert Wakefield, B. A.;" in "an Answer to an Address, &c. in another Address to the People, by Benjamin Kingsbury;" in "the People's Answer, &c. by John Hinckley;" and in "a Nobleman's Letter to the Right Rev. the Bishop

of Landaff, recommended to the Perusal of those into whose Hands his Lordship's Address may have fallen." Mr. Wakefield's "Reply" was followed by "an Examination" of it, by John Ranby, Esq.; an anonymous author's "Letter to the Inhabitants of Great Britain, occasioned by Mr. Wakefield's Reply, &c.;" and it was also reviewed by the attorney-general, who instituted prosecutions against its publishers.

The "Observations on the Taxation of Property," contain a variety of well weighed arguments in support of that mode of raising the necessary supplies for government, in preference to the plan of making income the basis of taxation.

The earl of Lauderdale's "Letter on the present Measures of Finance, &c.," besides observations in general politics, tending to censure and expose the conduct of administration, contains some important financial remarks, chiefly levelled against the minister's assessed-tax-bill. Some of the modifications which were afterwards introduced into that obnoxious act, appear to have been suggested by his lordship's strictures.

The "Enquiry into the Feasibility of the supposed Expedition of Buonaparte to the East, by Hyles Irwin, Esq.;" "Buonaparte in Egypt," being an appendix to the former, by the same author; and the "Reply to Irwin, or the Feasibility of Buonaparte's Expedition to the East exemplified, by an Officer in the Service of the East India Company;" will supply the speculators on the ultimate object of the Gallic visit to Egypt, with food for their curiosity, and matter to exercise their powers of calculation.

In Irish politics, we meet with "Considerations on the Situation

to which Ireland is reduced by the Government of Lord Camden," which are the production of a man of talents, and of wit; but the spirit which they breathe is execrable, and the measures of policy which they recommend, horrible. Lord Camden's administration was too mild for the humane author, and, *a fortiori*, lord Cornwallis's conciliatory plans the height of weakness and folly. The "Letter to his Excellency the Marquis Cornwallis, vindicating the Conduct of Lord Camden from the Aspersions contained in" the last mentioned pamphlet, is an ingenious, if it be not a satisfactory defence of the Camden administration: and proposes measures for correcting the evils which have involved our sister kingdom in the miseries of civil war, consantaneous to the feelings of every humane and liberal heart. The author of "the Causes of the Rebellion in Ireland disclosed, in an Address to the People of England, &c. by an Irish Emigrant," undertakes to prove, that the system of government, for some years past in that country, has driven it into its present dreadful situation. And he must be an able advocate, who shall succeed in exculpating the supporters of that system, from a considerable share of the blame which this treatise attributes to them. The "Second Letter to the Earl of Moira, by the Author of the Letter to his Lordship, in Defence of the Conduct of his Majesty's Ministers, and of the Army in Ireland," is designed to contest the noble lord's statements relative to the commercial situation of Ireland, and to show the flourishing condition of its trade and revenues. Although in some less interesting points the author has been able to correct the information obtained

by lord Moira, he has not disproved his material facts, nor the validity of his most important conclusions. "O'Connor's Letters to Earl Camden" were written by Mr. Roger O'Connor, and relate to the circumstances of his apprehension, in the year 1797, in consequence of an information taken by his own brother, Mr. Robert Longfield O'Connor. The particulars which they contain, exhibit such pictures of corruption and depravity, as cannot be viewed without disgust and indignation.

Another subject in Irish politics, which is likely for some time to interest the attention of the public, is the union of the two kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland. The first treatise which appeared on this subject, has been generally attributed to the Irish secretary at war, and is entitled "Arguments for and against an Union between Great Britain and Ireland considered; to which is prefixed a Proposal on the same subject, by Josiah Tucker, D.D. Dean of Gloucester." The author of this work, notwithstanding that he affects the utmost impartiality, is a designed and plausible advocate for the measure in question. The benefits to be obtained by it, particularly by the security of the protestant ascendancy, and the extension of commerce, and some allurements held out to the catholic and dissenting clergy, constitute the leading features of his pamphlet. The "Thoughts on an Union, by Joshua Spencer, Esq. Barrister at Law;" the "Answer to the Pamphlet, entitled 'Arguments, &c.' in a Letter addressed to Edward Cooke, Esq. Secretary at War, by Penaberton Rudd, Esq. Barrister at Law;" and the "Letter addressed to the Gentlemen of England and Ireland, on the Inexpediency, &c. by Sir

Sir John J. W. Jervis, Bart." were published with the intention of counteracting the effects of the last mentioned treatise. The first of them is dispassionate and argumentative; the second, lively, but more desultory; and the third, patriotic, but declamatory.

From Mr. Harper's "Observations on the Dispute between the United States and France, &c." and Mr. Monroe's "View of the Conduct of the Executive in the Foreign Affairs of the United States, as connected with the Mission to the French Republic, during the Years 1794, 5, and 6," our readers may learn the sentiments of the English and French parties on the North American continent; and be enabled to form a judgment of the truth of the charge brought by France against America, of ingratitude, deceit, and the violation of the most solemn engagements, in the conduct and terms of the treaty between Great Britain and the United States.

To the list of political treatises already enumerated, we can only add the titles of the following: "A Serious Address to the People of England, on the Subject of a Reform, and the Necessity of Zeal and Unanimity in Defence of their Country, by James Johnson, Esq.;" "A Letter to the Reformers, by Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq.;" "The Freeman's Vade-mecum, &c. on Matters Civil, Ecclesiastical, and Military, by Philanthropos;" "An Enquiry into the State of the Public Mind, among the Lower Classes, &c. by Arthur Young, Esq.;" "Thoughts on Mr. Fox's Secession, &c. by a Suffolk Freeholder;" "The Case of the People of England, addressed to the 'Lives and Fortune Men,' both in and out of the House of Commons, &c. by one of 80,000 incorrigible Jacob-

bins;" "Matter of Fact for the Multitude, by a true Patriot;" "A Chapter to the English Multitude, by one of the People;" "The Crimes of Democracy;" "Plain Facts, in Five Letters to a Friend, on the present State of Politics;" "An Alarm to Landholders, or the Consequences of the Bill for the Redemption of the Land Tax, by Sir John Sinclair, Bart.;" "Interesting Suggestions to Proprietors and Trustees of Estates, respecting the Land Tax Sale, &c. by Simon Pope;" "A Letter to the Landholders of Great Britain, on the present important Crisis, &c. by a Friend to the Landed Interest;" "Opposition dangerous, by Thomas Lister, B. A.;" "Remarks on the Conduct of Opposition during the present Parliament, by Geoffrey Mowbray, Esq.;" "Earnest and serious Reflections on the Urgency of the present Crisis, &c.;" "Letter to a County Member, on the Means of securing a safe and honourable Peace;" "Pacification, or the Safety and Practicability of a Peace with France demonstrated, &c.;" "The Progress of Delusion, or an Address to all Parties, exposing the Influence and Effects of Popular Credulity and Indolence, &c.;" "Unite or Fall!" "An Address to the People of Great Britain, by George Burges, B. A.;" "Sound an Alarm to all the Inhabitants of Great Britain, by way of Appendix to Reform or Ruin;" "A Letter to the Marquis of Lorn, on the present Times, by Donald Campbell, Esq. of Barbreck;" "An Appeal to the People of England, occasioned by the late Declaration of the French Directory;" "An Appeal to the Head and Heart of every honest Man and Woman in Great Britain, respecting the threatened French Invasion, &c.;" "Thoughts on Invasion, by Havil-

land le Mesurier, Esq.;" "An Address to the People on the present relative Situations of England and France, &c. by Robert Fellowes, A. B.;" "A Timely Appeal to the common Sense of the People of Great Britain in general, and on the present situation of Affairs, by J. Penn, Esq.;" "Now or Never! or Britain's Peace in her own Power;" "The Tocfin, or an Appeal to good Sense, by the Rev. L. Dutton, Historiographer to his Majesty;" "A cool Appeal to the sober Sense of Englishmen, or Republicanism and Monarchy considered, by an English Constitutionalist;" "A short Address to the Members of Loyal Associations, on the present State of Public Affairs, &c. by John Gifford, Esq.;" "Pepper and Salt, or a Letter to the armed Associations of Great Britain, &c.;" "Address of great Importance (at least in the opinion of the writer) to the Nobles of England, the Emigrants from France, and the Rulers of both Countries;" "Every Man's Friend, or Britain's Monitor, in Two Parts, and addressed to all Ranks;" "A Warning to Britons, against French Perfidy and Cruelty, or a short Account of the treacherous and inhuman Conduct of the French Officers and Soldiers toward the Peasants of Serbia, during the Invasion of Germany in 1738, selected from a well authenticated German Publication, by Anthony Authère, Esq.;" and "Consequences of the French Invasion, by Sir John Dalrymple," consisting of descriptions of a number of public buildings, intended to ridicule the French, and to teach Englishmen "their duty in public life, by their fears and their dangers."

Glady taking our leave of politics, we proceed to announce the

publications of the year in Critical, Classical, and Polite Literature. At the head of this list we have to place a work, which to classical scholars will prove highly acceptable. "ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΟΡΕΣΤΗΣ. Euripidis Orestes, ad Fidem Manuscriptorum emendata, et brevibus Notis, Emendationum potissimum Rationes reddentibus, illustrata; in Usum studiosæ Juventutis." Such is the title of the second play of this Greek tragedian, for which the learned world is indebted to the profound, critical, and accurate editorial labours of professor Porson. In our last year's Register we introduced to our readers the *Hecuba* of the same bard, which was the first of a series which Mr. Porson intends successively to publish. After what we observed in that volume, and, indeed, from the general knowledge among scholars, of the editor's peculiar qualifications for the task which he has undertaken, it is unnecessary to enlarge on the erudition, judgment, and sagacity displayed in the work now before us. To adepts in Greek literature it will afford genuine gratification, while the student may derive much valuable assistance from it in explaining the difficult and dark passages in Euripides. Mr. Porson is decidedly hostile to the introduction of alterations into the text, without the most urgent necessity; on which account his emendations will chiefly be found in the notes. In one of these, without the compliment of noticing the author's name or labours, he has indirectly, and in an indignant style, answered a part of Mr. Valart's criticism, in his *Diatribes* on the *Hecuba*.

The next work which we have to insert in our catalogue, is "ΑΠΙΛΟΤΗΛΑΟΤΕ ΗΕΙΛΑΟΤ, five *Amoribus* by Iuphis in *Actus* Pro-Mexico;

mericos: Fragmentum ab H. Stephano primum editum, nunc pluribus auctorum Epitaphis, partim nuper editis, partim nunc primum è Codice Harleiano." This little work has been edited by the learned Thomas Burges, prebendary of Durham; but we do not think it calculated to increase his literary reputation. The original poems were not entirely worthy of the attention which he has paid to them, and afforded very inadequate scope for the display of his talents as an elegant scholar, and judicious critic. And this impression of them is disfigured by a greater number of typographical errors, than could have escaped the notice of an accurate and vigilant editor.

Mr. Carr's fourth and fifth volumes of a translation of the "Dialogues of Lucian, from the Greek," are the completion of a work which the author began before the commencement of our annual labours, and which exhibits a free version, in an easy colloquial style, of his satirical and eccentric original. It is accompanied with a few notes, chiefly, of allusions to modern facts and customs; but it contains no preliminary dissertations, discriminating between the genuine and the spurious dialogues; no critical remarks selected from the "bundle" in the author's drawer; and it is defective in necessary tables of reference. It is but justice to add, that our translator has properly omitted the most licentious passages in his original.

"The Treatise of Cicero De Officiis, or, his Essay on Moral Duty, translated, and accompanied with Notes and Observations, by William M'Cartney, Minister of Old Kilpatrick," was intended to be "neither quite literal, nor, like many of the most admired translations of the present day, a mere

paraphrase. It was proposed to keep as near the original as the English idiom would permit, that the translation might be as fair a representation as possible of the author's sentiments and style." We cannot say, however, that the beauties of the admirable original, in either of the last mentioned points, appear to any advantage in Mr. M'Cartney's version. His task, indeed, was difficult; and required not only that acquaintance with the language of the Roman orator and philosopher necessary to understand his meaning, but a degree of taste in composition, to vary the modes of expression according to the changes of style which take place in the remain of antiquity, that falls to the lot of few writers. Mr. M'Cartney's notes and observations are intended for the unlearned only.

In our sketch of French literature for the year 1797, we noticed the appearance of a pleasing and interesting work, in the Italian language, by count Verri, of Milan, which was first published at Rome. During the present year that work has been translated into English, with a trifling variation in the title; which is "The Roman Nights, or Dialogues at the Tombs of the Scipios." In these dialogues, the characters introduced are some of the most distinguished and illustrious who have flourished during the republican and imperial periods of Roman history; and the topics discussed, the most important and striking events in their respective times, including a view of the causes and consequences of the several civil conflicts at Rome. We can promise our readers much entertainment from the perusal of them. The translator has executed his task in a manner not unworthy of his elegant original.

The treatise "on the Syntax of the Latin Verb, designed for the

Use of Students, by Samuel Seyer, M. A." is only part of an entire grammar of the Latin language, intended to be completed, should the public reception of the present specimen encourage him to proceed in his plan. It is divided into twenty seven chapters. In the first eighteen, the author treats, minutely and copiously, on the signification, connexion, &c. of the different tenses of the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods, and illustrates his opinions and rules by a great variety of examples, from the best authorities. The nineteenth chapter contains an accurate list of the various particles which require the subjunctive mood after them, with a discrimination of the exceptions to which some of them are liable. In the remaining chapters Mr. Seyer treats of the signification and syntax of the infinitive mood, gerunds, supines, participles, verbs impersonal, the various kinds of verbs, lists of such as are used in both an active and neuter sense, &c. &c. This work discovers much industry of research, accuracy of distinction, ingenuity of remark, and felicity of exemplification; and will afford very desirable assistance to the student who wishes to become a master of the Latin language, in strict classical purity. We hope, and indeed entertain no doubt, that we shall again become acquainted with the author in this department of literature.

The "English Key to Xenophon's Memorabilia of Socrates, literally translating the Passages which appear difficult to young Beginners, and explaining their Grammatical Construction, &c." has been published with a design "to try the disposition of the public mind, towards an attempt to teach Greek, without the least assistance from Latin." Without stopping to in-

quire whether the author's object be more desirable than that obtained from the present mode of education, in which the student is exercised at the same time in both Greek and Latin, we are willing to allow him a considerable share of praise, for the intimate knowledge which he discovers of the Greek language, and the happy method which he has followed in illustrating the sense of the Greek verbs. The latter appears to us peculiarly well adapted to impress young minds, with clear and determinate notions of the meaning of words. The text which the author has adopted, is taken from Simpson's edition of the *Memorabilia*.

Of the contents of the next work which we have to notice, its copious title will convey a sufficient idea. "A Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names, in which the Words are accented and divided into Syllables exactly as they ought to be pronounced; with References to Rules, which show the Analogy of Pronunciation. To which is added a complete Vocabulary of Scripture Proper Names, divided into Syllables, and accented according to Rules drawn from Analogy and the best Usage. Concluding with Observations on the Greek and Latin Accent and Quantity, with some probable Conjectures on the Method of freeing them from the Obscurity and Confusion in which they are involved, both by Ancients and Moderns, by John Walker." This work is intended, chiefly, for the use of "English scholars, who, having only a tincture of classical learning, are much at a loss for a knowledge of this part of it;" and to persons of that description it will be found to render considerable service. We do not, indeed, concur with the author in all the rules which

which he has laid down for pronunciation, nor subscribe, without exception, to the accentuation in his different vocabularies. In that of the Greek and Latin proper names we find fewer occasions of differing from him, than in the vocabulary of scripture words; and with respect to the latter, it is but justice to observe, that he appears, in general, to have followed the common usage of the clergy, which, excepting in the instances of those who are intimately conversant in the Hebrew language, is not always "the best usage." Mr. Walker's observations on the Greek and Latin accent and quantity, are sensible and ingenious; but we do not conceive that they tend to terminate the controversies on those subjects.

In our Register for the year 1786, we gave a particular account of the nature and merits of Mr. Horne Tooke's "LITÆA LITEPOENTA, or, the Diversions of Parley." During the present year our philosophical grammarian has published, in 4to, the first volume of a new and enlarged edition of that work, which he proposes to complete in two other volumes. The new matter in the volume now before us, consists of answers to criticisms, and additional illustrations. The answers to criticisms are particularly levelled against the strictures of a writer under the signature of Cassander, noticed in our Register for the year 1790; and are distinguished by evidences of a profound acquaintance with etymology, great strength of reasoning, and the well known and striking peculiarities of the author's manner. Mr. Tooke's additional illustrations, in his text and numerous accompanying notes, involve in them much political matter, which we should have been better pleased to have met with un-

der some other form, than that of a philological work. We acknowledge that he has contrived to introduce it with much dexterity; and that it contains a manly and energetic avowal of his opinions, for which he has suffered in his fortunes and in his person; and also some of the most pointed and caustic remarks on the conduct of his enemies, whom he considers to be the enemies of his country, that are to be found in the English language: but still it is out of place. We shall be glad to have the opportunity of congratulating the learned world, on the appearance of the remaining volumes of this important and curious work.

Mr. Henshall's treatise, entitled "The Saxon and English Languages reciprocally illustrative of each other, the Impracticability of acquiring an accurate Knowledge of Saxon Literature through the Medium of Latin Phraseology, &c.; and a new Mode suggested for radically studying the Saxon and English Languages;" as far as respects its exhibiting evidence of the author's qualifications for giving a just and accurate interpretation of the language of our forefathers, and for laying down rules to facilitate its study, we must refer to the judgment of those who are more conversant than ourselves in this branch of literature. Against his leading positions, however, we see no reason for exception; notwithstanding that such a comparison as we are able to make of his translations with those of other Saxonists, convinces us, that he merits severe reprehension when he proceeds "to assert, that no correct ideas can be collected from the laborious exertions of a Hickes, a Gibson, or a Wilkins; to affirm that their Latin interpretations are of little authority, unintelligible, and delusory."

Mr.

Mr. Henshall, as well as Mr. Tooke, has chosen to season his philology with a mixture of politics; and he has, likewise, availed himself of the opportunity afforded by the introduction of a new and curious version and commentary of some of the first verses in St. John's Gospel, to aim a stroke at heresy and heresarchs.

Mr. Salmon's "First Principles of English Grammar, methodically exhibited and explained, upon a Plan entirely new, tending to render the Knowledge of them useful in the Study of Languages," reflect honour on the author's ingenuity, and philological industry. After some cursory observations in the preface, on the genders of nouns, the formation of the plural, and the inflexion of verbs, he proceeds, in his first chapter, to definitions and observations on the parts of speech; which he illustrates by a perspicuous and useful comment on the pleasing ballad of Edwin and Emma. In a second chapter, he treats of the case, or modes of nouns, explaining their nature and use, and exemplifying his rules by a second application of the same little poem. With this chapter we are not so well satisfied as with the preceding; since we cannot coincide with the author, either in discarding the genitive or possessive case, or in introducing into English grammar an elliptical case, an interjective case, and a redundant case. Independently of these innovations on the usual plan of English grammars, we think Mr. Salmon's work deserving of much approbation, and recommend its use to those who are about to commence an acquaintance with the Latin language.

Mr. Hornsey's "Short Grammar of the English Language, in Two Parts, simplified to the Capacities of Children, with Notes, and

a great Variety of entertaining and useful Exercises," is principally compiled from the writings of our first grammarians, and not ill adapted to initiate young persons in the rudiments of our native tongue.

The "New and complete Dictionary of the English and Dutch Languages, with a Vocabulary of Proper Names, Geographical, Historical, &c. in Two Parts; 1st, English and Dutch; 2d, Dutch and English; compiled chiefly from the Quarto Dictionary of William Sewel, &c. by Samuel Hull Wilcocke," appears to be well worthy of the painful labours bestowed on it by the editor, for upwards of three years, and to offer the best lexicographical aid, of which we have any knowledge, to those who wish to study the Dutch language. It contains numerous and important additions to the words in Sewel's Dictionary, collected from the best authorities in both languages, and other useful improvements "which have never before appeared, as part of it, in any dictionary."

The "Athenian Letters, or the Epistolary Correspondence of an Agent of the King of Persia, residing at Athens during the Peloponnesian War," in two volumes, &c. are the first edition, published in England, of a work which was originally printed nearly sixty years ago, but confined to a private circulation. They were the joint productions of a society of young friends, contemporaries at the university of Cambridge, about the years 1739 and 1740, and are honourable to the ingenuity and literary proficiency of their authors. Under the pretence of being a translation from an old Persian MS. found in the library at Fez, they narrate, in lively and pleasing language, some of the most interesting tales of other times, and illustrate the

the history, politics, manners, and opinions of the Greeks and Persians during the period mentioned in the title; somewhat in the manner of Bartolomæ's Travels of Anachartas, allowing for the difference between the epistolary form, and that of connected narrative. We mean not, however, to compare them with that admirable work. But although these letters were not before regularly published in England, copies of them from the Irish press, as well as those procured by the friends of the writers, were too generally circulated in the learned world, to render it necessary for us to add any thing more in this place, than that the edition before us has been printed under the directions of the earl of Hardwicke, the successor of one of the authors, and that it is illustrated with engravings, and a map of ancient Greece.

The splendid edition of "the Works of Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford," in five volumes, royal quarto, will prove a very acceptable present to the public, on account of the high reputation which the author sustained during a long life, devoted to literary pursuits, and the pleasure received from such of his pieces as have already appeared, which display much classical knowledge, true taste, antiquarian research, fancy, and wit. But his merits, and his peculiarities, have been so long, and so generally known, that it is entirely unnecessary for us to enlarge on them. We shall, therefore, content ourselves with informing our readers, of the variety of matter, instructive and entertaining, which they may expect to meet with in the present collection. It would be improper, however, not to mention, from the preface to these volumes, that "Lord Orford, so early as the

year 1768, had formed the intention of printing, and soon afterwards actually began a quarto edition of his works, to which he proposed to add several pieces, both in prose and verse, which he had either not before published, or never acknowledged as his own. A first and part of a second volume, printed under his own eye, at Strawberry-hill, were already in a state of great forwardness. But his frequent indispositions, and the unimportant light in which he always persisted in considering his own works, seem to have combined in deterring him from carrying this design into execution. The completion of this work he entrusted to the editor (Mr. Berry); to whom he also bequeathed all the notes, additions, and alterations, which he himself had collected and arranged. Lord Orford may therefore still be considered as his own editor: every thing that he had selected is faithfully given to the public; and his arrangement, as far as it had gone, is in every respect strictly adhered to." The first volume consists of the noble author's juvenile poetry; the celebrated tragedy of the *Mysterious Mother*; fugitive pieces in prose, including his contributions to the *World*; the inquiry into the age of the long-lived countess of Desmond; advertisements to works printed at Strawberry-hill; and the catalogue of royal and noble authors of England, with lists of their works, enlarged by the addition of numerous articles, some of which are written with peculiar attention and spirit, and in the author's best manner. The second volume contains the well-known Gothic story of the *Castle of Otranto*; a humorous account of the giants lately discovered, referring to the reports circulated in 1766 respecting the inhabitants of Patagonia; historic doubts

doubts on the life and reign of king Richard III. with a curious and interesting postscript, adverting to the character and actions of the late duke of Orleans; *Attes Walpoliane*, or a description of the valuable collection of pictures, formerly the ornaments of Houghton Hall, with additions and new illustrations since its first appearance in 1743; a sermon on painting; Nature will prevail, a dramatic piece in one act; thoughts on tragedy, and on comedy; a detection of a forgery, called Testament Politique du Chevalier Walpole, including a short account of the last years of sir Robert Walpole's life; the life of Mr. Baker, from which we have given extracts among our selections; the author's account of his own conduct relative to the places he held under government, and towards ministers; the description of Strawberry-hill, of the furniture, pictures, curiosities, &c; the short essay on modern gardening; and the counter address to the public on the dismissal of general Conway, now first acknowledged. Vol. III. is wholly composed of the anecdotes of painting in England, with some few additional articles. In the IVth volume we are presented with the catalogue of engravers; Lord Orford's correspondence with, and last declaration concerning, Chatterton; a curious narrative about Roussau; entertaining anecdotes, and interesting historical and political information, under the title of Reminiscences, written in 1788; humorous and sarcastic hieroglyphic tales, and miscellaneous pieces in prose; strange occurrences, pleasantly related; detached thoughts; miscellaneous verses; and a collection of lively and entertaining letters between the author and his friend and school fellow, the accomplished and

amiable Mr. West. The Vth volume consists entirely of the author's epistolary correspondence; concerning which it is sufficient to observe, that it presents the reader with a vast fund of amusement, on a great variety of topics, and in relation to a number of distinguished and eminent characters. These volumes are embellished with a profusion of well executed and elegant engravings.

The "Selections from the most celebrated Foreign Literary Journals, and other periodical Publications," in two volumes, have been published in consequence of the favourable reception given to the "Varieties of Literature," noticed in our Register for the year 1795, and like those volumes, are miscellaneous with respect to their subjects, and various in point of merit and importance. The departments of speculative philosophy, political economy, science, history, criticism, poetry, and the fine arts, have been judiciously laid under contribution by the industrious compiler and translator, who has presented the English reader with a valuable and pleasing addition to his sources of information and entertainment.

Of the "Essays and Criticisms, by Dr. Goldsmith, now first collected," in three volumes, the following history is given in the preface. The first volume is a republication of such pieces as were selected by the author himself, from his numerous compositions dispersed in various periodical works, and most favourably received "by the world, as the genuine efforts of genius." The contents of the second and third volumes were selected from the same sources, by the late Mr. Thomas Wright, printer, who, "during his connexion with those publications, in which the early works of Dr. Goldsmith were originally

originally contained, carefully marked the several compositions of the different writers, as they were delivered to him to print; and he had just completed the present impression at the time of his death. They consist of characters, tales, dreams, narratives, criticisms, natural history, and a variety of pieces on miscellaneous subjects. The lively and flowing style in which they are written, the "flashes of wit, happy strokes of humour, accurate observations on life and manners, and successful delineations of character" in which they abound, offer strong internal evidence of their being the genuine performances of Dr. Goldsmith; and we congratulate the public on their being thus rescued from oblivion. Prefixed to the second volume, is a short life of the author, and an original letter, descriptive of the state of manners at Edinburgh, when he commenced his medical studies in the university of that city.

From the perusal of Dr. Drake's "Literary Hours, or Sketches critical and narrative," we have received a considerable portion of entertainment. They consist of a variety of critical essays, tales, papers on miscellaneous subjects, poetical translations, and pieces of original poetry. Some of these sketches were first published, in a less complete and polished form, in the *Speculator*; a periodical work inserted in our annual catalogue for the year 1790. Among the critical essays, several will be found that reflect credit on the author's literary acquirements, on his judgment, and on his taste. Some of his tales are happily illustrative of different methods of producing terror, either by the introduction of the machinery of Gothic superstition, or of natural causes and events; and others are

beautifully simple, pathetic, and impressive. Among the poetical translations, is a spirited imitation of the sixth satire of the second book of Horace, by the reverend Francis Drake, and specimens of a new translation of Lucretius, preparing for publication by Mr. Good, from which we are led to expect much future pleasure. The original pieces of poetry which Dr. Drake has introduced, are delicate, or animated, according to the different subjects of them, and evidence a more studied attention to correctness and perspicuity than was displayed in the productions of his muse, noticed in our Register for the year 1793.

Mr. Jackson's work, entitled "The Four Ages; together with Essays on various Subjects," comprehends a great number of topics, chiefly connected with polite literature, from the discussion of which we have received both information and pleasure. In the *Four Ages*, which is the longest essay in the volume, Mr. Jackson has inverted the poetical order of the ancients, and endeavoured to prove, that "the first of the Four Ages, is man in his savage state, wherever found, and at whatever period; the second is when he has made some progress towards civilisation; the third is the state in which we are at present; and the fourth is that to which we are approaching, if no unforeseen event arrives to cut off our golden hopes." In treating this subject, he has discovered extensive reading, and deep reflection: supported his hypothesis with much ingenuity of argument and illustration; and presented us with a pleasing picture of what he imagines will be the situation of mankind in "the millennium of philosophy." The remaining essays in the volume, Mr. Jackson wishes to be considered

"as sketches for a periodical paper which was once intended for publication; they are, in consequence, upon familiar subjects, and treated as such." They are so various, that we cannot pretend to enumerate or class them: but we can assure our readers, that they contain much originality of sentiment and description, interesting and humorous narratives, and just remarks suggested by an intimate acquaintance with the fine arts and a cultivated taste; which will chiefly occasion regret in the perusal, that the author was not more liberal in filling up his sketches.

The "Miscellaneous Sketches, or Hints for Essays, by Arthur Browne, Esq. Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin," in two volumes, come before the world with very modest pretensions. Most of them are stated to have been "the result of thoughts which occurred in a long and solitary journey into a remote and unfrequented part of Ireland, where conversation was not to be expected, and the mind was left to itself, put together as evening amusements in melancholy inns." And they are said to have been printed, "only better to preserve a number of fugitive pieces for the amusement of the writer's own family and immediate friends." They are, however, deserving of a favourable reception from readers in general, on account of the unaffected learning, just criticism, good sense, and liberal sentiments which they display. The subjects of them are literary, moral, and miscellaneous; and the style in which they are written is correct and easy. Mr. Browne differs diametrically from the last mentioned author, with respect to his ideas of the progressive advancement of mankind towards perfection. In-

stead of being able to indulge the flattering hope of the approach of a golden age, he endeavours to maintain, what has always been his opinion, "that the present state of illumination and refinement will be succeeded by second darkness and Cimmerian night, equally gloomy with the cloud raised by the crush of the Roman empire." But he is less happy than his opponent, in the arguments and illustrative facts to which he has recourse in support of his hypothesis.

"The Indian Observer, by the late Hugh Boyd, Esq. with the Life of the Author, and some Miscellaneous Poems, by Lawrence Dundas Campbell," presents us with a number of essays, chiefly critical and moral, by different hands, which first appeared in a periodical paper, entitled the *Hircarrah*, published at Madras in the year 1794. Such of them as were written by Mr. Boyd, discover the author to have been possessed of respectable talents; and from the biographical notice prefixed, he appears to have been distinguished by those estimable qualities which secured to him the warm attachment of a number of friends. But neither from the information communicated by the editor, nor from the internal evidence supplied by the productions before us, have we been satisfied that he was "a great and extraordinary man—a critic of admirable acumen;" or that among his literary efforts have appeared "some of the happiest productions of human wit." The remaining papers comprised in the *Observer* are of various merits; but none of them, either in point of sentiment or composition, are equal to those of Mr. Boyd. Mr. Campbell's life of the author is written in a high strain of panegyric, and in language that

is wanting in ease and periphrasis. His poetry, although "not recommended by any originality of thought, or much elevation of fancy," inculcates good principles, and contains spirited and pleasing lines.

Mr. Webster's "Sentimental and humorous Essays, conducive to Economy and Happiness, drawn from common Sayings and Subjects, which are full of common Sense, the best Sense in the World," are a republication of a popular American little treatise, in which useful advice and hints, adapted in some measure to all countries, but more particularly so to American circumstances and manners, are conveyed in simple and impressive language. In the title they are said "to be written in the manner of Dr. Franklin." We cannot, however, flatter the author so far as to state, that his labours merit much comparison with those of his great prototype.

The "Comments on the Plays of Beaumont and Fletcher, &c. by the right honourable J. Monck Mason," have been published with the laudable wish of contributing to rescue those bards from the unmerited and unaccountable neglect into which they have fallen in modern times. The author relinquishes all pretensions to industry, in examining and collating the various ancient impressions of those plays. He frankly acknowledges that he is in possession only of the second folio edition; and has, therefore, chiefly confined his labours within the province of conjectural criticism. And notwithstanding that, on this account, his comments are less weighty and important than his well known talents, and intimate acquaintance with our ancient dramatic writers might have

rendered them, they are still entitled to a very favourable reception from the literary world, and are a valuable addition to our stock of dramatic criticism. In an appendix, Mr. Monck Mason has published some observations on Shakspeare, additional to those announced in our Register for the year 1785; in which his attention is principally paid to the alterations and criticisms of the late editions of Malone and Steevens.

Dr. Ferriar's "Illustrations, of Sterne, with other Essays and Verses," consist, chiefly, of papers which have already appeared in the transactions of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, detecting numerous plagiarisms in the writings of that eccentric author; thrown into a new form, and considerably enlarged. The rest of the volume is composed of miscellaneous pieces, partly in prose, and partly in verse; in which curious information, acute criticism, humour, and satire, are blended together in a manner that will afford much entertainment to the reader. Dr. Ferriar's qualifications as a poet are very respectable.

The treatise entitled "Infant Institutes, Part I. or a Nurseries Essay on the Poetry, both real and allegorical, of the earlier Ages, &c." contains humorous and satirical comments on the nonsensical songs of the nursery, seasoned with an ample portion of what is called loyal politics. It has frequently excited our laughter; but sometimes tired us, by the too minute extension of the author's whimsical criticisms.

"Melody the Soul of Music, an Essay towards the Improvement of the Musical Art, &c." is the production of an ingenious and elegant writer, whose acquaintance, how-

ever, with the science of music, and experience in its practice, do not appear to be profound and extensive. From his attachment to simplicity he would banish all harmony from our public performances, and substitute, in the room of the compositions of modern cultivated taste, strains as artless as the ballads of the Scotch and Welch mountains. In an appendix, the author has given an account of an invention, consisting in an addition to each of the usual strings of the violin, of another thicker one, tuned an octave below the former, both to be acted upon at the same time. We leave it to practitioners to decide on the advantages or disadvantages that would attend such an alteration of that instrument.

Mr. Price's "Essays on the Picturesque, as compared with the sublime and beautiful, &c." vol. II. are published in continuation of his work noticed in our Register for the year 1794. The subjects of them are, artificial water; decorations; and architecture and buildings. They afford additional illustrations of the author's former reasonings and remarks, and will be read with equal pleasure by men of taste, and admirers of landscape painting. The study of pictures he still recommends to practical artists, as the surest guide to excellence; but is less exceptionable in the application of the principles of his theory, as well as more respectful in the notice which he takes of those of Mr. Brown. Under the head of architecture, besides many just and striking remarks on the buildings of the Roman, Florentine, and Venetian schools, &c. the reader will find an ingenious, if not a satisfactory vindication, of sir John Vanbrugh's design and execution in the noble mansion of Blenheim.

Of the "Letter to the Dilettanti Society, respecting the Obtention of certain Matters essentially necessary for the Improvement of public Taste, and for accomplishing the original Views of the Royal Academy of Great Britain, by James Barry, Esq. R. A. Professor of Painting in the Royal Academy," we have already taken partial notice, when announcing the enlarged edition of Pilkington's Dictionary of Paintings. In addition to what was stated under that article, we have to remark, that it details a number of curious particulars relative to a motion made by the author, for the appropriation of part of the funds of that institution to the purchase of exemplars of ancient art, and a room or rooms to put them in; and to other transactions, which throw considerable light on the interior management of the academy. The professor's motion was unfortunate, notwithstanding the acknowledged judgment, and enthusiastic disinterested attachment to the improvement of the arts, in which it originated. With his observations subsequent to these particulars, on the infinite importance of preserving such a government in Italy as the papal, for "the growth and advancement of those arts which tend to meliorate and humanise society," we have been amused, as well as with some other peculiarities in opinion which are scattered throughout his pages. His letter contains, likewise, interesting anecdotes respecting Mr. Burke, sir Joshua Reynolds, Mr. Mortimer, &c.

In our Register for the year 1792, we introduced to our readers Mr. John Ireland's entertaining work, entitled "Hogarth illustrated," in two volumes. During the present year that author has published a supple-

supplemental volume, entitled, "Hogarth illustrated from his own Manuscripts," which is embellished with forty-four engravings. This volume, so far as it is properly the offspring of Mr. Ireland's inquiries and talents, is a becoming appendage to a work, which deservedly met with very considerable encouragement from the public. But what renders it peculiarly interesting, is the circumstance that the greater part of it is compiled from the genuine papers of our great moral painter, which, had he lived a little longer, he would have methodised and published himself. The task of the editor, which he has ably executed, was to find the connexion of these different manuscripts, separate the subjects, and place each in its proper class, arranged, according to the best of his judgment, as the author intended, and divided into chapters. These manuscripts consist of Hogarth's life, comprehending his course of study, correspondence, political quarrels, &c.; autographs of the subscribers to his *election*, and intended print of *Sigisfrunda*, with letters to and from lord Grosvenor, relative to that picture; the analysis of beauty, with the original sketches, and many remarks omitted in the printed copy; a supplement to the analysis, never published, comprising a succinct history of the arts in his own time; his account of the institution of the Royal Academy, &c.; and sundry memoranda, relative to the subjects of his satire in several of his prints. In an appendix to this volume, collectors will find an useful catalogue of Hogarth's prints, with their numerous variations, and a list of such as have been improperly ascribed to him, &c. It is unnecessary to add any thing to the particulars which we

have enumerated, to apprise our readers of the high gratification which they may receive from the perusal of this publication.

The following magnificent works it would be improper entirely to exclude from our catalogue, notwithstanding that they belong rather to the fine arts than to literature: "Imitations of original Drawings by Hans Holbein, in the Collection of his Majesty, for the Portraits of illustrious Persons of the Court of Henry VIII. with Biographical Tracts;" "Imitations of original Designs by Leonardo da Vinci, consisting of various Drawings of single Figures, Heads, Compositions, Horses, and other Animals, Optics, Perspective, Gunnery, Hydraulics, Mechanics, and in particular of very accurate Delineations, with a most spirited Pen, of a variety of Anatomical Subjects, in his Majesty's Collection;" and "Engravings from original Designs of Annibalé, Agostino, and Ludovico Caracci, in his Majesty's Collection, consisting of elegant Compositions and Studies for the various celebrated Pictures in the different Palaces and Cabinets at Rome, Bologna, Parma, Milan, &c." The above works are publishing in numbers, by John Chamberlayne, keeper of the king's drawings and medals, and F. S. A. in large folio, and are executed in a highly beautiful style. Of the first mentioned article ten numbers have already appeared, each containing six engravings by Bartolozzi, and biographical sketches, which are neatly and pleasingly written. Of each of the remaining articles, we have only the first number to announce; that of the former, containing eight engravings, and that of the latter six, by the same eminent artists, and ac-

accompanied with some biographical notices.

Under the head of Poetical Translation and Poetry, we have to announce "the Satires of Persius, translated by William Drummond, Esq. M. P." This version of the most obscure and inelegant, but at the same time most "inferribly moral," of the Roman satirists, reflects honour on the classical acquirements and poetic taste of its author. It is faithful to the sense of the original, notwithstanding that it is sometimes too much dilated, and consequently, fails, like all preceding attempts, in expressing the full strength in the indignant, and keen poignancy in the more lively passages of the Roman poet. Mr. Drummond's versification is nervous, elegant, and harmonious. In his preface, his literature and judgment are advantageously displayed; and his original powers as a poet, in his prologue.

The "*Fabulæ Selectæ. Auctore Joanne Gay, Latine redditæ*," by Chr. Anney, Esq. afford abundant evidence of the author's intimate knowledge of the Roman tongue, and of his genuine classical taste. They partake much of that peculiar ease and harmony, with which we have been so highly pleased in the vernacular productions of his comic name. They are written in hexameter and pentameter verse, and are accompanied with the original English.

"The *Marfo*, a Poem, translated from the Italian of Luigi Tansillo, by William Keble," is a very interesting didactic production, "of one of the brightest wits in that constellation of genius which appeared in Italy in the 16th century; who was not, perhaps, inferior to any writer of his time in the simplicity of his diction, the

elegance of his taste, or a strict adherence to nature and to truth." This poem is divided into two cantos: in which the author, with admirable force of reasoning, and felicity of illustration, exposes the injurious effects, to all the parties who engage in it, of the custom "still so prevalent, of committing the children of the richer and middle ranks of society to be brought up by the poor;" and offers useful advice to those females, who have the virtue and good sense to sacrifice fashion, ease, and amusement, that they may discharge one of the most important duties of the maternal character. Mr. Roscoe's version is spirited, correct, and elegant, and particularly to be commended for the delicacy of expression in which he has clothed the sentiments of the original. The typography of this work is a pleasing specimen of the state of excellence to which our provincial presses have arrived.

"Oberon, a Poem, from the German of Wieland, by W. Sotheby, Esq." in two volumes, will prove acceptable to English scholars, both on account of the celebrity of the original, which is uncommonly popular on the continent, and the successful manner in which the translator has executed his task. This poem is a highly finished epic romance, divided into twelve cantos; in which the author's various powers of bold, interesting, or exquisitely beautiful description, and the creations of his prolific fancy, are admirably combined with the narrative of the main actions in his story, so as to fascinate the attention of his readers. Sometimes, indeed, the pictures which he has drawn are voluptuous, almost to licentiousness. The adventures of sir Huon, a knight of the

the court of Charlemagne, in fulfilling some desperate injunctions imposed on him for having killed, in self-defence, one of the sons of that monarch, form the principal subject of the poem, of which our limits will not permit us to enter into an analysis. Mr Sotheby's translation is elegant, smooth, and harmonious, and rendered in stanzas of nine lines, in a style and manner approaching towards that of Spencer. Of its merits in presenting us with the sense, and preserving as much of the spirit of the original as could well be transfused into a foreign idiom, a strong testimony has lately been given, in a letter from Wieland himself, to the conductors of one of our most respectable monthly publications.

"Comus, a Masque, &c. by John Milton, with Notes critical and explanatory, by various Commentators, and with preliminary Illustrations, &c. by Henry John Todd, M. A." is certainly the most complete edition which has appeared of that small dramatic poem of our admired bard. The preliminary illustrations present us with a methodical account of the edifice in which this masque was first represented, collected from various authors; copious particulars relative to the earl of Bridgewater, and his family, from whom the first dramatis personæ were selected, and to Henry Lawes, who set the songs to music, and performed the part of the Spirit; and a dissertation on the origin of Comus, in which the author is considerably indebted to Mr. Hole's "Remarks on the Arabian Nights' Entertainments." Mr. Todd's notes, exclusive of what he has selected from preceding commentators, chiefly consist of parallel passages from various authors, espe-

cially from Spencer, Shakspeare, and the other works of Milton, in prose as well as in poetry. To the whole he has added a copy of the masque, from a manuscript belonging to the duke of Bridgewater; in which several various readings agree with Milton's original readings in the Cambridge manuscript, and several are peculiar to itself. To the curious reader, and the antiquarian, this edition comes particularly recommended.

The second edition of "Joan of Arc, by Robert Southey," is noticed by us, on account of the numerous alterations which that poem has received since it was first announced in our Register for the year 1796. We cannot pretend to particularise these alterations, consisting of many omissions, particularly of the preternatural scenes, many pleasing and spirited substitutions, many improvements which render the narrative parts of the poem more conformable to real history, and the costume of the times, much laborious correction of the diction, and numerous additional notes. Whatever may be our opinion of some of the changes introduced by the author, we have no hesitation in pronouncing his interesting and beautiful poem, in its present form, greatly amended and improved on the whole.

In our annual volume referred to in the last article, we introduced to our readers an elegant and pleasing philosophical poem, by an unknown hand, on "the Influence of Local Attachment with respect to Home." During the present year, Mr. Polwhele, who has declared himself its author, has republished it with additional stanzas, farther illustrative of his subject, and many judicious alterations and improvements. He has also added to that work a second

volume, consisting of odes, tales, and other poems, selected from his numerous manuscripts of this sort, as being the most approved by his literary friends; which will not be found to reflect discredit on his abilities, or their judgment. To this volume are added illustrative notes on "local attachment," including reasons for the author's alterations of that poem, vindications of his claims to originality, &c.

The volume of "Poems, by Joseph Fawcett," besides "the Art of War," now republished with considerable alterations under the title of "Civilised War," and his "Art of Poetry, with Additions," contains several smaller pieces, of various merit, but none entirely unworthy of the author's talents. Some of them are in the elegiac strain, and display much taste and sensibility: others are distinguished by striking descriptions, just and animated sentiments, or by bold poetic imagery. Mr. Fawcett's rhymes, however, are sometimes very exceptionable. Of the pieces which are republished in this collection, we gave an account in our Registers for the years 1795 and 1797.

The two volumes of "Critical, Poetical, and Dramatic Works, by John Penn, Esq." are, in part, a republication of such various productions as have already appeared separately, and which have done honour to the author's critical talents, if they have not secured him an exalted seat in the regions of Parnassus. The additional pieces consist, chiefly, of the art of English poetry, in imitation of Horace's epistle to the Pisos, and abridgments of Milton's Sampson Agonistes, Ben Jonson's Silent Woman, and Voltaire's Semiramis, so as to adapt them to the theatre.

With respect to these efforts of the author we have to observe, that the observations, remarks, and notes, with which they are accompanied, constitute their chief value, and may be perused with pleasure and improvement.

The volume of "Poems, sacred and moral, by Thomas Gisborne, M. A." contains the elegy to the memory of the reverend William Mason, noticed in our last year's Register, and several other lyric pieces, most of which possess considerable merit as poetical compositions. The author's versification is correct and easy, and his language animated, or grave, according to the nature of his subject. On the tendency of the whole, to impress the minds of his readers with moral and religious sentiments, we wish to bestow our warm approbation. But surely Mr. Gisborne, when comparing christianity with the principles of ancient philosophy, does not do justice to the doctrines of Epicurus or of Zeno, in adopting the vulgar opinions concerning their systems.

The "Poems by J. Hucks, A. M." consist of odes, sonnets, descriptive and miscellaneous pieces, partly in rhyme, and partly in blank verse. In the latter species of poetry, however, the author's powers do not appear displayed to any eminent advantage. But several of his pieces in rhyme are harmonious, pleasing, and interesting, and are honourable to the sentiments and heart of the author. To his own poems Mr. Hucks has added two elegies, written with feeling and taste, and some translations from Casimir, by his friend the reverend William Heald, A. B.

The "Epistle to a Friend, with other Poems, by the Author of the Pleasures of Memory," like the former

former productions of the same muse, are highly finished and elegant compositions, in which beautiful description and delicacy of sentiment are combined, in a manner that cannot fail to gratify readers of taste and sensibility. The design of the epistle "is to illustrate the virtue of true taste, and to shew how little she requires to secure, not only the comforts, but even the elegancies of life."

"Malvern, a descriptive and historical Poem, by Luke Booker, LL. D." is divided into three books. In the first the author describes the beautiful scenery of Malvern, and "the numerous seats of elegance which rise around," together with the celebrated battles of Tewkesbury and Evesham. The second book is chiefly employed on the buildings, manufactories, &c. of Worcester. In the third book Dr. Booker expatiates on the virtues of the Malvern spring, and of the "breezes from the flowery vales." The poetic abilities which Dr. Booker displays, are very respectable. His versification is correct and pleasing; his descriptions frequently striking and beautiful; and the reflections which he has introduced, well adapted to enforce just moral sentiments, or to excite warm devotional feelings.

Mr. Cottle's "Malvern Hills, a Poem," is entitled to considerable praise, whether we respect its claims to poetical merit, or the uniformly humane and benevolent spirit which it breathes. Its style is peculiarly easy and harmonious; and the descriptive part of it presents us with many glowing and spirited passages, and beautiful similes. But a considerable portion of the poem is employed in descanting on the evils arising from "insatiate commerce," and some spe-

cies of manufactures. The sentiments and remarks which these subjects call forth, reflect great credit on the author's heart, who appears in urging them to have "been influenced by no other motives than a desire of finding a cure, by exciting dormant feelings in the minds of the good, and not by a querulous disposition to detect evils which cannot be removed."

"Coombe Ellen, a Poem, written in Radnorshire, Sept. 1798, by the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M." is highly animated and beautiful in the descriptive parts, and abounds in such meditations and reflections as were properly suggested to a well-informed and serious mind, by a survey of the romantic scenery which the author visited. With the correctness, elegance, and delicacy of Mr. Bowles's muse, our readers are sufficiently acquainted. It was our intention to have inserted an extract from Coombe Ellen among our poetical selections; but our copy of it was unfortunately mislaid, until that department of our volume was completed.

The volume entitled "Blank Verse, by Charles Lloyd and Charles Lamb," contains several pieces of merit, which are distinguished by poetical taste, and genuine pathos, and inculcate useful and consolatory principles on minds labouring under the pressure of life's evils. Their strain, however, becomes tiresome, from its being too uniformly pensive and melancholy; and they are by no means free from carelessness and inattention, in respect to phraseology and versification.

The "Lyrical Ballads, with a few other Poems," are the productions of an author of considerable talents, "written chiefly with a view to ascertain how far the lan-

guage of conversation in the middle and lower classes of society, is adapted to the purposes of poetical pleasure." Many of the ballads are distinguished by great simplicity and tenderness, and contain a very "natural delineation of human passions, human characters, and human incidents." With others we have been less satisfied, considering them to be unfortunate experiments, on which genius and labour have been misemployed. Of the remaining pieces some are highly beautiful and pleasing, and present us with passages which entitle the author to a very respectable rank among modern poets.

Mrs. Moody's "Poetic Trifles," as she modestly terms them, consist of a variety of elegant effusions, some of which have already received the sanction of public approbation, and others are for the first time permitted to escape beyond the circle of her social connexions. Their general characteristics are good sense, generosity and delicacy of sentiment, liveliness of imagination, and harmony of numbers. In the cause of humanity, and of tender feeling towards the brute creation, our poetess is an amiable and commendable enthusiast.

"The Crisis, or the British Muse to the British Minister and Nation, by the Author of *Indian Antiquities*," is distinguished by that energy and harmony, of which the author has exhibited striking proofs in his former intercourse with the muses; and is intended to rouse his countrymen to a "spirit of patriot zeal, and undaunted fortitude," in repelling the threatened attack of the French on their "beach shore." It abounds in bold thoughts, and beautiful poetical embellishments; and is particularly

complimentary to the talents and virtues of our prime minister. But we are unable to discover from what page of the Christian code the author borrowed the morality of one part of his address to Britons, to animate them to manly exertions against their foes:—"immortal let your rooted hatred burn!"

Mr. Coleridge, in his "Fears in Solitude, written in 1798, during the Alarm of an Invasion," while he is equally patriotic with the last mentioned author, in urging his countrymen to unite to repel invading foes, takes care to remind them of that too prevalent degeneracy of manners, and those public crimes, which demand instant reformation, if they would wish their efforts to prove successful, and sanctioned by the great Ruler of empires. The author's sentiments are serious and weighty; and his poetry, with the exception of a few negligences and prosaic expressions, is harmonious, elegant, and animated. To his "Fears in Solitude" Mr. Coleridge has added, "France an Ode," and "Frost at Midnight." In the former he vindicates, on the principles of "divine liberty," his attachment to the cause of the French when they first emancipated themselves from the yoke of despotism, and his abhorrence of their present politics, and, particularly, of their conduct towards Switzerland. His "Frost at Midnight" exhibits a picture that is honourable to our poet's feelings.

"The Progress of Satire, an Essay in Verse," is the production of a man of taste and literature, and no mean poetic talents, who shows "how unreasoning it is in itself, and how prejudicial to the interests of learning, to encourage anonymous

mous satires, the authors of which being secure from all effectual responsibility, attack indiscriminately the most respectable characters, and laugh at every appeal to the laws of candour and good nature." In the latter part of his essay, and particularly in the notes which accompany it, the author has employed his powers of satire, and literary criticism, with great success, in exposing "the slovenly and impure expressions in the verse, and pedantry, vanity, and virulence in the prose" of "the Pursuits of Literature."

"The Patrons of Genius, a Satirical Poem, with Anecdotes of their Dependents, Votaries, and Toad-eaters, Part I." is intitled to very high praise, as a poetical and literary production. A greater quantity of keen and polished satire we have not seen compressed into an equal number of pages. How far its voice has been "directed by truth," and, on that account, "may induce consideration, and ultimately lead to measures of salutary reformation and national utility," his readers must judge for themselves. We shall only add, that the author sets out with the assumption, that, in the present period of English history, "all the vices of which human nature is susceptible, are sheltered under the masks of religion, or law, or patriotism, or loyalty;" and that he exercises his severity, with undistinguishing and unrelenting rigour, on men of all parties, and all professions.

The remaining poetical productions of the year 1798, our limits obliges us to include in the following list: "Retribution, and other Poems, by H. Hughes;" "Windermere, a Poem, by Joseph Budworth, Esq.;" "Gresford Vale,

and other Poems, by M. Holford;" "A Tribute to the Manes of unfortunate Poets, by John Hunter, Esq.;" "Poem by the Rev. Gerald Fitzgerald, D.D. S.T. T.C.D. &c.;" "Rising Castle, with other Poems, by George Goodwin;" "Plays and Poems, by Miss Hannah Brand;" "The Columbiad, an Epic Poem, in twelve Books, by the Rev. James L. Moore;" "Effusions of Fancy;" "Trifles of Helicon, by Charlotte and Sophia King;" "Epistle from Lady Grange to Edward D——, Esq. written during her Confinement in the Island of St. Kilda;" "Original Poems, by the Reverend Benjamin Johnson;" "Poems on various Subjects, by Mary Ann Chantrell;" "Matriculation, a Poem;" "The Vision, a Poem on the Union of Russia and Prussia against Poland, with other Pieces, &c.;" "The Wild-huntsman's Chase, from the German of Bürger;" "An Elegy to the Memory of the Right honourable Edmund Burke, by the Reverend John Chetwood Eustace;" "Amusing Recreations, or a Collection of Charades and Riddles on Political Characters, and various Subjects, by Mrs. Pilkington;" "Thalia to Eliza, a Poetical Epistle from the Comic Muse to the Countess of D——, in which various eminent Dramatic and Political Characters are displayed;" "The Warning, a Poetical Address to Britons;" "The Hurricane, a Theosophical and Western Eclogue, &c. by William Gilbert;" "Julia, or Last Follies;" "Nilus, an Elegy, occasioned by the Victory of Admiral Nelson over the French Fleet, by Eyles Irwin, Esq.;" "Ode to Lord Nelson, on his Conquest in Egypt, by Harmonius;" "The Irish Boy, a Ballad;" "Mary, the Officer's Peeler,

a simple but true Story, by a Lady;" "The Warning Voice;" "Sydney, a Monody, occasioned by the Loss of the Viceroy Packet, on her Passage from Liverpool to Dublin, in the Month of December, 1797;" "A Monody on the Death of Mr. John Palmer, the Comedian, &c. by T. Harris;" "The Villain's Death-Bed, or the Times, a Poem;" "The Patriot, a Poem, by a Citizen of the World;" "Elegy on a much-loved Niece, with an Hymn from the Ethiopic, by Eusebio;" "Kilbarney, a Poem, by Joseph Arkinston, Esq.;" "Elegies, and other small Poems, by Matilda Betham;" "Henry and Acasto, a moral Tale, in three Parts, by the Reverend Brian Hill, A. M.;" "Epistle in Rhyme, to M. G. Lewis, Esq. M. P. &c. with other Verses;" "Defence of the Stage, a Speech in Verse, delivered in a public Assembly, &c.;" "The Druriad, or Strictures on the principal Performers at Drury Lane Theatre, a Satirical Poem, with Notes critical and explanatory;" "The Golden Mean, a Satire, in three Dialogues;" "Satires, &c. by Jaques, Part the first;" "Impartial Strictures on the Poem called 'The Pursuits of Literature,' and particularly a Vindication of the Romance of the Monk;" "The Grove, a Satire;" "The Egotist, or Sacred Seraphia familiar Dialogue between the Author of the Pursuits of Literature and Octavius;" "The Sphinx's Head broken, a Poetical Epistle, with Notes, to Thomas James Matthews, Clerk to the Queen's Treasury, &c. by Andrew Adipus, an injured Author;" "the Literary Census, a Satirical Poem, with Notes, &c. by Thomas Dutton, A. M.;" "Eternity, a Poem, by John Jamieson, D. D.;" "Plutibologia, a Poem,

miscellaneously descriptive, and didactical, in four Parts, &c. by a Gentleman in the Sussex Militia;" "Gebir, a Poem, in seven Books;" "Extracts from the Works of the most celebrated Italian Poets, with Translations by admired English Authors;" "Effusions of the Heart, by Miss Stockdale;" and "Tales of the Hoy, interspersed with Song, Ode, and Dialogue, by Peter Pindar, Esq."

Of the Dramatic publications of the year, a considerable portion consists either in entire translations or alterations of German plays. In this number are two versions of "Don Carlos, a Tragedy," from Schiller, one by the translators of "Fiesco," the other by an anonymous hand; "Stella, a Play," and "Clavidgo, a Tragedy, in five Acts," from Goethe; two versions of "The Stranger, a Comedy," from Kotzebue, one by Mr. George Papendick, and the other anonymous; two versions of "Lover's Vows, or the Child of Love," or "The Natural Son, &c." from the last-mentioned Author, the former by Stephen Porter, and the latter by Anne Plumptre; an alteration of "Lover's Vows, a Play, in five Acts, by Mrs. Inchbald;" "Reconciliation, a Comedy;" "The Count of Burgundy, a Play, translated by Anne Plumptre;" "Adelaide of Wulstingen, a Tragedy, translated by Benjamin Thompson, junior," each, likewise, from Kotzebue; "Natalia and Menzikoff, or the Conspiracy against Peter the Great, a Tragedy, in five Acts;" and "The Maid of Marienburg, a Drama, in five Acts," from Kratter; two versions of "The Inquisitor, a Play, in five Acts," from the German, one by the late James Petit Andrews, and James Pye, Esqrs. the other anonymous :

mous; and "Count Benyowsky, or the Conspiracy of Kamtschatka, a Tragi Comedy, in five Acts, translated from the German, by the Reverend W. Kender."

Among our native productions are, "Arminius, a Tragedy, by Arthur Murphy, Esq.;" "A Series of Plays, in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind, each Passion being the Subject of a Tragedy and a Comedy;" "The Castle Spectre, a Drama, in five Acts, by M. G. Lewis, Esq. M. P.;" "Cambro-Britons, an historical Play, in three Acts, by James Boaden, Esq.;" "The Mysterious Marriage, or the Heirship of Roselva, a Play, in three Acts, by Harriet Lee;" "He's much to blame, a Comedy, in five Acts;" "Secrets worth knowing, a Comedy, in five Acts, by Thomas Morton, Esq.;" "The Forester, or the Royal Seat, a Drama, in five Acts, written by John Bayley;" "False and True, a Play, in three Acts;" "Returned in Time, a Comic Opera, in two Acts;" "A Day at Rome, a Musical Entertainment, in two Acts;" "Boisteration, or a Ten Year's Bunler, a Farce, by Walley Chamberlain Oulton;" and "Blue Beard, or Female Curiosity, a Dramatic Romance, by G. Colman, junior."

In the number of such productions of the year as we have reserved for our Miscellaneous list, are some small pieces connected with the subject of Education, designed either for elementary treatises, or to enforce useful knowledge and virtuous principles through the medium of interesting narratives, and pleasing tales, adapted to the capacities of children. We have, indeed, seen a large systematic performance announced, entitled "Practical Education, by

Maria Edgeworth, Author of Letters for literary Ladies, &c. and by Richard Lovell Edgeworth, F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.," in 2 volumes, quarto. But as we have not met with the work itself, we must content ourselves, for the present at least, with inserting its title in our annual catalogue.

Mrs. Lovechild's "Infant Friend," in two parts, consisting of a spelling book, and reading lessons, and her "Parsing Lessons for young Children, resolved into their Elements, for the assistance of Parents and Teachers," have been drawn up with care and judgment, and are well calculated for the purpose of early instruction.

The "Minor Morals, interspersed with Sketches of familiar History, historical Anecdotes, and original Stories, by Charlotte Smith," in 2 vols. consist of dialogues, and narratives, in which the principal part is sustained by an aunt, who superintends the education of her four nieces, and introduces them, in a pleasing manner, to an acquaintance with some important branches of useful and ornamental knowledge. They form a proper supplement to the authoress's "Rural Walks," and "Rambles farther," noticed in our Registers for the years 1795 and 1796.

Mrs. Pilkington's "Scripture Histories, or interesting Narratives, extracted from the Old Testament, for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth," deserve, likewise, to be commended for their useful tendency, and the happy method adapted to render them impressive, by connecting them with the circumstances of domestic life. The same lady's "Mirror for the Female Sex, &c. designed principally for the Use of Ladies' Schools" consists of historical selections, from ancient

ancient and modern authors, of established reputation and celebrity. It was published for the purpose of introducing young ladies, "with ut intense application, or any superfluous waste of time, to an early acquaintance with such extraordinary characters in their own sex, as have either adorned or disgraced the page of biography." And it is executed in a manner that renders it worthy of encouragement in private families, as well as schools.

The "Youth's Miscellany, or a Father's Gift to his Children, consisting of original Essays, moral and literary, Tales, Fables, Reflections, &c. intended to promote a Love of Virtue and Learning, &c. by the Author of the juvenile Olio, &c." is a work in which improvement and entertainment are blended together in a lively and pleasing manner, well adapted to interest the attention of young readers.

The same character is applicable to "Instructive Rambles in London, and the adjacent Villages, designed to amuse the Mind, and improve the Understanding of Youth, by Elizabeth Helme," in 2 volumes; to "Tales of the Hermitage, written for the Instruction and Amusement of the rising Generation;" to "Pity's Gift, a Collection of interesting Tales, to excite the Compassion of Youth for the Animal Creation," selected by a lady, from the writings of Mr. Pratt; to "Tales of the Cottage, or Stories, moral and amusing, for young Persons, written on the Plan of that celebrated work, *Les Veillées du Château*, by Madame de Genlis;" and to "Familiar Conversations for the Use of Young Children, interspersed with Stories, &c. by their very good friend Harriet Martineau," in 2 volumes.

"The Female Tegis, or the Duties of Women from Childhood to Old Age, and in most situations of Life, exemplified," contains much important and valuable instruction, which the author has borrowed, with great freedom, from Mr. Gifford's Enquiry into the Duties of the Female Sex, noticed in our last volume.

The "Appeal to the Men of Great Britain in behalf of Women," is an ingenious, lively, and well-written defence of the claims of the female sex to be considered on the same footing as the male, with respect to authority, intellect, and energy of character; of their right to the same freedom and advantages of education; and of the necessity of their being admitted to the exercise of that right, for promoting the peace and happiness of both sexes, and for perfecting the human species. These subjects are discussed under the divisions of "erroneous ideas which men have formed, of the character and abilities of women; what men would have women to be; what women are; and what women ought to be." In each division the reader will meet with many just observations, and striking remarks, and will be entertained by the authoress's manner as well as matter, whatever may be his opinion respecting the conclusiveness of her arguments.

The "Essay on Humanity to Animals, by Thomas Young, A.M." deserves to be highly commended, for the able persuasive manner in which the author has conducted his reasoning, and for the useful effects which it is calculated to produce on young and ingenious minds. In executing his work of benevolence, Mr. Young has judiciously introduced pleasing and pathetic narratives of facts, illustrative

tive of the affection displayed by animals towards their offspring, which add considerable weight and force to his arguments.

"The posthumous works of the Author of a *Vindication of the Rights of Woman*," in 4 volumes, consist of an unfinished novel, entitled "*The Wrongs of Woman, or Maria*;" the chief object of which is to maintain the principles on which Mrs. Godwin acted in her connexions with the male sex, and when attempting to commit suicide, in opposition to the "cant of virtue," and the weak prejudices of religionists; simple and useful lessons for a child, which are also printed separately; a series of letters, addressed chiefly to Mr. Inlay; and some small miscellaneous pieces. Mrs. Godwin's letters, certainly, contain "fine examples of the language of sentiment and passion," and cannot be read without exciting a painful interest in the sufferings which embittered her life. But those very letters will enable the serious reflecting reader to trace the greater part of her sufferings to their legitimate sources: the principles which she had adopted, and the imprudence of her conduct. And he will not be led by them greatly to admire the deficiency of the editor, in permitting some passages which they contain to be laid before the public.

The treatise, entitled "*Emigration to America*," candidly considered, in a Series of Letters from a Gentleman resident there, to his Friend in England," contains much useful information, which merits the serious notice of those Englishmen who deliberate about exchanging their native country for a transatlantic settlement. It adds weight to the concurrent opinion of the most intelligent travellers, that

in the new world, "the more useful a man is, the more likely he is to get forward, and the farther he is removed by his occupation from assisting his neighbours in the commodities and necessities of life, the less likely he is to succeed." The pictures which the author has drawn of American manners, and of the American character, are very far from being favourable. We hope, and trust, that personal disappointment, and the misrepresentations of others to whom he applied for information, have contributed to give a tincture to his colouring.

Of the contents of the following amusing publication, which is not ill conducted, our readers will be able to form a sufficient idea from its title. "*The Spirit of the public Journals for 1797*, being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and *Joux-d'esprit*, principally Prose, that appeared in the Newspapers, and other Publications, with explanatory Notes, and Anecdotes of many of the Persons alluded to. To be continued annually."

The "*Copies of original Letters*, recently written by a Person in Paris, to Dr. Priestley, in America, taken on board of a neutral vessel," contain the Parisian news, and political speculations at the time when the author wrote, and express his hopes of a revolution taking place in this country. On the reveries of this quidnunc, the editor has published a most lab'rious comment; in which, by a species of logic, equally honourable to his understanding, as the intention of it is to his heart, he attributes to Dr. Priestley the same sentiments and hopes which the language of his intended correspondent discover. In the arts of malignant insinuation, and foul abuse, our commentator appears to be no mean proficient.

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As far as we are warranted by internal evidence, we are led to ascribe to the same editor the preface and notes accompanying "Copies of original Letters from the Army of General Bonaparte, in Egypt, intercepted by the Fleet under the Command of Admiral Nelson, with an English Translation." The letters themselves, however, are very interesting, as conveying the remarks, observations, and sentiments of a number of individuals engaged in the most extraordinary expedition of modern times, and with which has been connected one of the most brilliant events in the history of the British navy. But they will not impart to the reader any information with respect to the real ultimate objects of the French general. The editor's attempt to resolve the motive of the Egyptian invasion, into a desire of the directory to get rid of 40,000 of the best soldiers belonging to the republic, and several of her ablest generals, merely because they had no money to enable them to fulfil their promise of a free gift to the troops, at the conclusion of a general peace, appears to us to be highly absurd.

The following list comprises the Novels and Romances of the year; of which the first seven articles are stated to be superior, in point of execution, to the vast mass: "The Young Philosopher, by Charlotte Smith, in 4 vols;" "Arthur Fitzaroini, a Novel, in 2 vols;" "Edmund Oliver, by Charles Lloyd, in 2 vols;" "The Life and Opinions of Sebaldus Nothacker, from the German of Nicolai, by Thomas Button, M. A. vols. II. and III.;" "The Mountain Cottager, or Wonders upon Wonders, from the German of C. H. Spiels;" "The Rector's Son, by Anne Plumptre,

in 3 vols;" "George Barnwell, a Novel, by T. S. Surr, in 3 vols;" "The Step-Mother, a Domestic Tale, from real Life, by a Lady, in 2 vols;" "Rosalind de Tracey, by Elizabeth Sophia Tomlins, in 3 vols;" "Octavia, by Anna Maria Porter, in 3 vols;" "Geraldina, a Novel, founded on a recent Event, in 2 vols;" "Human Vicissitudes, or Travels into unexplored Regions, in 2 vols;" "Augusta, a Novel, in French, in 3 vols;" "Henry Willoughby, in 2 vols;" "Statira, or the Mother;" "Derwent Priory, or Memoirs of an Orphan, in a Series of Letters, in 2 vols;" "The Castle on the Rock, or Memoirs of the Elderland Family, in 3 vols," by the author of the last mentioned article; "Ianthé, or the Flower of Carnarvon, by Emily Clarke, Granddaughter of the late Colonel Frederic, Son of Theodore, King of Corsica, in 2 vols;" "Sadaski, or the Wandering Penitent, by Thomas Bellamy, in 2 vols;" "Ellinor, or the World as it is, by Mary Ann Hanway, in 4 vols;" "Waldorf, or the Dangers of Philosophy, by Sophia King, in 2 vols;" "The Midnight Bell, a German Story, founded on Incidents in real Life, in 3 vols;" "The Sicilian, by the Author of the Mysterious Wife, in 4 vols;" "Anecdotes of two well-known Families, &c. written by a Descendant, and prepared for the Press by Mrs. Parsons, in 3 vols;" "Theopha, or Memoirs of a Greek Slave, in 2 vols;" "Caroline, by a Lady, in 3 vols;" "Calaf, a Persian Tale, in 2 vols;" "Dusseldorf, or the Fratricide, a Romance, by Anna Maria Mackenzie, in 3 vols;" "St. Julien, or Memoirs of a Father, from the German of Augustus la Fontaine, in 2 vols;" "The Castle of Beeston, or Randolph Earl of Chester,

Chester, an Historical Romance, in 2 vols ;" " The Libertines, a Novel, in 2 vols ;" " The Tower, or the Romance of Ruthyne, in 3 vols ;" " Gomez and Eleonora, translated from a Spanish Manuscript, in 2 vols ;" " Norman Banditti, or the Fortreis of Constanz, a Tale, in 2 vols ;" " Invasion, or what might have been, in 2 vols ;" " The Vagabond, by George Walker, in 2 vols ;" " Confessions of a Beauty, in 2 vols ;" " Jaquelina of Hainault, an Historical Novel, by the Author of the Duke of Clarence, in 3 vols ;" " Henry de Beauvais, a Novel, in 2 vols ;" " Laura, or the Orphan, by Anne Burton, in 2 vols ;" " The Suter-ranean Cavern, by the Author of Delia and Rosina, in 4 vols ;" " The Stranger, or Idewellyn Family, a Cambrian Tale, in 2 vols ;" " A Tale of Rosamond Gray and old blind Margaret, by Charles Lamb ;" " Ella, or He's always in the Way, by Maria Hunter, in 2 vols ;" " Ildegerte, Queen of Norway, in 2 vols ;" " Godfrey de Hastings, a Romance, in 3 vols ;" " Melbourne, a Novel, in 3 vols ;" " Solemn Injunctions by Agnes Musgrave, in 4 vols ;" " The Castle of St. Donats, or History of Jack Smith, in 3 vols ;" and " The Rock, or Alfred and Anna, a Scottish Tale, in 2 vols."

FOREIGN LITERATURE

Of the Year 1798.

OUR annual list of the productions in Foreign Literature commences, as usual, with the few articles published in the Russian dominions, of which we have received any information. In this number Mr. Herder's labours are still entitled to precedence. That gentleman has published, at Riga, the 9th and 10th volumes, or parts, of his "Letters to promote Humanifation." The contents of these volumes, like those of the preceding, are miscellaneous, in prose and verse, and invite attention by the interesting nature of their subjects. Under the following heads, the author's exertions are most distinguishable in prose: National Character, particularly the German and French; the reciprocal Influence of Nations; the Spirit of History; and the Merits of Christianity as an humanizing Religion. In verse, the most striking of his pieces are entitled *Negro-Idyls*, and describe, in a truly affecting manner, the miseries occasioned by the slave trade, both in Africa and America.—At Petersburg, M. F. E. Schröder has published the 2d volume of "Dr. J. Reinegg's general historical and topographical Description of Caucasus, compiled from his posthumous papers." This work, like a voyage to unknown regions, undertaken and described by a person of eminent talents, and indefatigable in his in-

quiries, cannot fail of affording much information and entertainment to the reader.—At Riga, M. H. Storch has published, in 2 volumes, "a View of Petersburg," which will prove interesting to readers in general, and particularly serviceable to those who may be induced by business or curiosity to visit that metropolis. It contains a particular and pleasing account of the public institutions and public buildings in that city; of the manners and customs of the inhabitants; of the literature, arts, and sciences, of Russia; and is enlivened with occasional poetical translations, and amusing anecdotes.—At Petersburg, M. J. C. Elinrich has published a treatise on "the origin, progress, and present state of the Russian hunting music," which is an object of some curiosity. This species of music was invented by J. A. Marefch, master of the imperial chapel, who died in 1794, and is performed entirely on horns, "some long and straight, others more or less short, and a little curved, but all of the same tone." It is spoken of by the author, as enchanting, not only to those who are not exquisitely musical, but to connoisseurs; and carried to such a degree of perfection, "that the quartettos and quintettos of Haydn, Mozart, and Fleyel, may be performed with it, and the concertos of Giarnovichli executed even to the shake,

shake, with admirable precision and celerity." — At Riga, a pleasing anonymous work has appeared, entitled "Lucumon, or Accounts of extraordinary Men in Physical and Moral Respects, with a View of the Wonders of Nature and Art in the History of Countries and Nations, calculated for Instruction and Entertainment," by the perusal of which young persons may be gradually allured to the study of more important publications in history and science. — At the same place has been published a novel, consisting of love tales, and wonderful narratives, and entitled "The Savoyard Family."

When we come to Swedish Literature, we have to announce the publication of the "New Transactions of the Royal Academy of Sciences, for 1797," parts I—III. In this volume, among other scientific and economical articles, we have a continuation of Dr. Melanderhielm's interesting history of science; a geometrical essay on the motion of such bodies as are moved to or from a given point, in the inverse duplicate ratio of their distance from such a point, by J. Svanberg; curious experiments, by F. A. Gadd, with the *pietra fungaia*, a fossil, which if kept in a cellar, and wetted with water, produces a number of edible mushrooms; and a memoir, containing a satisfactory investigation of the method practised by the ancients, to impart a great degree of hardness to their copper weapons, by P. J. Hielm. — At Upsal, counsellor Gustavus Paykull has published "*Fauna Suecica Insecta*," vol. I. This volume extends in its alphabetical arrangement as far as *Heterocerus*, and contains the first and smaller half of the *Scarabæi*, according to the method of Fabricius;

with new species and genera, and some corrections of Fabricius's descriptions. M. Paykull's qualifications for such an undertaking are sufficiently known to all who are intimately conversant in entomology. — At Stockholm, professor Sparman has published the first volume of a periodical work, which the author's well known abilities and judgment cannot fail of rendering an acceptable present, not only to professional and scientific men, but to readers in general. It is entitled, "Select, generally useful, and, for the most part, new Essays and Collections in Medicine, Pharmacy, Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, Rural Economy, Commerce, and Trade, together with Extracts of interesting Matters in Natural History, Books of Geography, and Travels, &c." — At Lund, M. N. H. Sjöberg has published a learned and well-executed "Introduction to the Knowledge of Swedish Antiquities," illustrated with 5 plates: and at the same place an anonymous author has published an "Introduction to a more intimate Acquaintance with Swedish Coins and Medals, from the earliest Times to the End of the Reign of King Haakan Magnusson," which promises, when complete, to be the most full and accurate work on the subject that has ever appeared. The above short list comprises the whole of the publications in Swedish literature, of which we have seen any account.

The articles concerning which we have been enabled to obtain the least information, in Danish literature, are still fewer in number than those which were inserted in our last year's scanty catalogue. Of M. Christiani's "*Essays for the Improvement of Mankind*," the first part of a second volume has
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made its appearance at Copenhagen. This part consists of a valuable and interesting essay on the liberty of the press, and the laws respecting it in Denmark; from which it appears, that the greater freedom enjoyed, at least formerly, in that kingdom than in most other countries of Europe, arose more from the connivance of the executive power, than from the actual state of the laws. And we suspect, that at the present period, the Danish literati are sufficiently able to appreciate the value of that liberty which depends upon connivance.—At the same place, Dr. J. Clem. Tode, professor of physic, has published “the *Materia Medica* of the mineral Kingdom, comprising crude, prepared, and compound Medicines,” vol. I. This work the foreign journalists state to possess the merit offulness and order, and to be enriched with many important remarks, and useful practical observations.—At the same place hath appeared “*Flora Danicæ* (conum Fasciculus vicissimus.” This grand work has been in a progressive state of publication since the year 1751, and consists of admirably executed engravings, in folio, accompanied with brief descriptions of the different plants represented.

The first publications which call for attention among the productions in Dutch literature, are professor Van Hamel’s “Translation of the Apocryphal Books, from the Greek,” vol. I.; and his “Short Remarks on the Apocryphal Books for the Unlearned,” vol. I. The former publication is said to contain an accurate and excellent version of the uncanonical books, accompanied with numerous learned and valuable notes; and of the latter the foreign reviewers are not

sparing in commendation. We are rather surpris’d, however, at the suggestion which they convey, that the author had not made himself acquainted with Eichhorn’s exegetical and critical labours.—At Haarlem, Teyler’s Theological Society has published the sixteenth volume of “Prize Dissertations relative to natural and revealed Religion.” The last volume of these valuable papers which fell under our notice was the thirteenth, introduced in this department of our Register for the year 1793. Of the intermediate volumes between that and the present, we have not seen any account. With respect to the volume before us, it contains two dissertations on the question “whether it can be satisfactorily proved, that man may at all times, with the assistance of his own understanding, and with his own reasoning only, without the aid of any actual or immediate divine revelation, obtain a proper knowledge of God, and of the divine attributes?” In both dissertations, which are the result of considerable abilities and ingenuity, the question is answered in the negative. The author of the former is M. J. Brouwer, minister of the baptist church at Leuwarden; and of the latter, M. Bruin, minister of the baptist church at Waaian.—At Amsterdam, and at the Hague, have appeared “*Memoirs of the Society for defending Christianity, at the Hague, for the Year 1795*,” which we have barely seen announced, without any mention of the merits of the different pieces of which it is composed. Our readers will recollect, that this society was established for the purpose of defending the orthodox doctrines of the reformed church, against the attacks of heretics. From their advertisement we learn, that the members

bers have not been inactive in the field of polemics; for it informs us, that the public are soon to receive two other volumes of their prize dissertations, for the years 1796 and 1797.—At the Hague, Dr. Heilbron has published “An Address and Scheme for improving Physic and Surgery in Holland, presented to the National Assembly April 26, 1796.” One part of the author’s scheme was the erection of a supreme medical college for the republic, which was rejected. To his address, as it now appears, he has added arguments, controverting the objections to that part of his plan, and some extracts from Hufeland’s Journal respecting the establishment at Jena, and others from the book published by the committee of instruction at Paris.—At Amsterdam, M. J. Wagenaar has published the XIXth and XXth volumes of his “History of the now united Netherlands, particularly of Holland,” illustrated with plates and charts. These volumes bring down the history to the year 1751, and are to be followed by a supplement, correcting former statements, and accompanied with an index to the whole.—At the same place M. Rhynvic Feith has published two volumes of “Odes, and other Poems,” which are said to possess a considerable degree of merit, such as will secure to the author the continuance of that public favour, which he formerly acquired by some dramatic pieces.

In our imperfect list of the multitudinous productions of the German press, we shall introduce the articles under the head of Biblical Literature and Theology, with the following work published at Halle: “*Novum Testamentum, Græce. Recognovit atque inferioris Lec-* 1798.

tionum varietatis et Argumentorum Notationes subjunxit, Ge. Christian. Knappius.” Concerning this work the foreign reviewers inform us, that it contains not only those readings which Griethach considered to be of undoubted authority, but some others which the editor regards as such; that he has divided his own probable readings into two classes, with marks to distinguish them from the other various readings, and the additional one of a star to such as he judges to be most probable; that the editor has paid great attention to typographical and grammatical accuracy, to the accents, and to the punctuation, which differs from that of Leusden in more than three hundred places; and that he has added to the text many useful summaries. This edition of the New Testament is in small octavo.—At Leipzig, M. J. C. H. Nachtigal has published “the Psalms or Songs of David and his Contemporaries, arranged in Chronological Order, and placed in a new Light,” volume I. This new light is the character of a drama, entitled *Zion*, in which the author has united such psalms or songs as he has selected, in an interesting and pleasing manner, while he has defended the method which he has adopted in an ingenious and learned prefatory disquisition. The supposed time of the drama is, when David brought the ark in grand procession from the house of Obed-edom to the tabernacle pitched for it in *Zion*; and the songs are thrown into the following divisions: such as were sung at the foot of the mount upon which *Zion* stood; in ascending the mountain; on the summit of the mountain; before the gate of *Zion*; on entering into *Zion*; on enter-

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ing the outward court of the tabernacle of the congregation; on resting the ark of the covenant; and after the ark of the covenant had been deposited in its place.—At Tübingen, professor Gaab has published “Contributions towards an Explanation of the Song of Solomon, the Book of Ecclesiastes, and the Lamentations,” which will supply biblical scholars with many ingenious remarks and useful hints. The author agrees in opinion with the most respectable of modern commentators, that the Canticles consist of small poems, entirely unconnected with, and independent on each other.—“*Commentatio de Antiquo Documento quod extat Gen. ii, et iii,*” is the title of a learned and curious dissertation on a part of the Mosaic records, by Dr. David Julius Pott, professor of theology, and published at Helmstädt. Part of the second, and the whole of the third chapter of Genesis, the author, with Eichhorn, and many other commentators, considers to be a pure mythical philosophema, of which he has given a very ingenious explanation: To such scripture critics as consider the literal and generally received sense of that portion of Genesis to be utterly inadmissible, the perusal of this commentary will afford much pleasure.—At Halle, Dr. Griesbach has published a new and greatly improved edition of his “*Synopsis Evangeliorum Matthæi, Marci, Lucæ, &c.*” of which the first impression appeared so long ago as the year 1774. In its present form considerable alterations will be found to have taken place with respect to the division and numeration of the sections; and it contains, beside, excerpts of those passages from St. John’s Gospel, which relate to the sufferings and

resurrection of Jesus, and a selection of the most important various readings from the author’s last edition of the Gospels, noticed in our Register for 1796.—At the same place, the same learned author has published the commencement of a new work, to which his established celebrity in the annals of philology will secure a favourable reception. Its title is “*Commentarius Criticus in Textum Græcum Novi Testamenti. Particula I.*” The present volume comprehends the first twenty chapters of St. Matthew’s Gospel.—At Leipzig, a valuable and interesting work has been published, in 5 vols. consisting of theological dissertations, critical essays, discourses *ex cathedra*, &c. by various authors, and under the care of very respectable literary characters. Its contents have been judiciously selected from numerous pieces, published separately, at different times, and now first collected for preservation under the title of “*Commentationes editæ a Johanne Casparo Velthufen, Ecclesiis sacrisque ducat. Brem. et Verd. Præfecto, Christiano Theoph. Kuinoel, Prof. Lips. et Geo. Alex. Ruperti, Gym. Stadenfis Rectore.*”—At Gottingen, professor E. F. C. Rosenmüller has published the first volume of a very laborious, and at the same time very useful work, entitled “*A concise History of Biblical and exegetical Criticism.*” His object in this undertaking is, to point out all works belonging to biblical literature, that are deserving of notice; to give a concentrated view of the contents of each; to show how far the authors have fulfilled the design they proposed to themselves; and to enable his readers to form an idea of what is peculiar to each author’s productions, and of the advantages that may be derived from the perusal

perusal of them. We are sorry that our limits will not permit us to enter into a more detailed account of this performance, which the extensive learning, judgment, and accuracy of the author, must render highly valuable to biblical students.—At Gotha has appeared the third volume of “A Biblical Encyclopedia, adapted to the present Times, by a Society of learned Men,” containing a vast variety of articles, critical, grammatical, mythological, historical, biographical, archæological, &c. &c. which have secured to the authors no small reputation on the continent.—At Leipzig, an anonymous author has published a work entitled “The Critique of the Christian Religion, or the only possible Point of View in which Revelation can be considered.” The object of the author, who is certainly an ingenious, if he may not be thought a satisfactory reasoner, is to prove, “that there is a pure original idea of revelation in the human mind; that there is a pure original claim of man to the existence of a revelation; and that there is a pure original belief of revelation which precedes that claim.”—At the same place, M. J. G. Herder has published two works, in the same spirit and of the same tendency with his theological treatises published at Riga, and noticed in our last volume. The first is entitled “On the Spirit of Christianity, with some Treatises on Subjects relating to it;” the second, “On Religion, Doctrines, and Titles.” These works are deservedly popular in Germany, since they are admirably calculated to repress a dogmatical disputatious spirit; to lead men to discriminate between the simple and essential principles of religion, and those opinions which keep them at vari-

ance with each other, and are substituted by bigots of all parties in the room of religion itself; and to inculcate that faith which leads to virtuous practice, and that love which is the fulfilling of the law.—To this department, likewise, belong the following works, the names of which we have seen announced, but without any notice of their respective places of publication: “Letters addressed to the Professors of the Christian Religion, by Dr. A. H. Niemeyer;” “The Christian Professor of Religion, in his moral Existence and Actions, by F. H. C. Schwarz,” vol. I.; “Instructions, together with Questions directed to Children, adapted to the whole Year, by J. Lauber, D. D.” vol. I.; “Sermons by G. W. C. Starke;” “Sermons on the Epistles of the Sundays and Holidays of the whole Year, by V. C. Veillodter;” and “Sermons delivered on some Sundays and Holidays of the Year, chiefly on the Text of the corresponding Gospels, by a Roman-catholic Curate.”

Among the articles in German literature belonging to Philosophy and Ethics, we find a second volume of “Elements of the History of Philosophy, by J. Gottlieb Buhle,” published at Gottingen. This part of a learned and valuable work, the result of much reading and judicious investigation, comprises the Platonic system, and the theoretic part of that of Aristotle. It contains, likewise, a well written account of the lives of their founders, with important critical notices respecting their works, commentators, and other writings to which they have given occasion.—At Frankfort, the learned and celebrated Dr. Weishaupt has published a comprehensive and ingenious metaphysical work, in three volumes,

in which, with great ability and address, he attacks the fundamental principles of the Kantian philosophy. The first volume is entitled "on Truth and moral Perfection;" the second, "on the Doctrines of the Motives and Causes of all Things;" and the third, "on Purposes, or final Causes."—At Leipzig, Mr. Solomon Maimon, another opponent of the new philosophy, but of inferior abilities to Dr. Weishaupt, has published his remarks upon it, under the title of "Critical Investigations of the human Mind, or the higher Powers of Knowledge and Volition."—At Züllichau, M. J. Christ. Greiling has published "Essays on Subjects of Practical Philosophy, written with a view to familiarise the Mind to the Ideas of Kant." This work is intended to give some notion of Kant's system to those, "whose other studies will not allow them sufficient leisure to examine it with that deliberation necessary to make themselves masters of it, as lawyers, physicians, and divines;" and is certainly entitled to higher commendation, with respect both to precision and perspicuity, than the greater number of treatises which have been sent into the world with the same pretensions.—At Leipzig, M. G. C. Müller has published "a Sketch of a Philosophical Doctrine of Religion," which merits the praise of acuteness and liberality, in elucidating the possibility of establishing such a doctrine, and the advantages which would arise from the universal adoption of it.—At Hanover, M. G. E. W. Dedekind has published a theologico-philosophical work, entitled "Dokimion; or a practical Essay on the real Relations subsisting between the Living and the Spirits of the Departed." This treatise is well

calculated to support the dominion of enthusiasm and superstition in weak and feeble minds. It is to be lamented that the author's respectable talents should have been devoted to the service of such a cause.—At Hamburgh, M. F. C. Bockels has published "New Fragments for enriching the Science of Man in general, and the experimental Knowledge of Mind in particular, a Book for the Learned and Unlearned;" which will be found to supply some facts deserving of attention in the study of psychology.—At Leipzig, M. C. Jes. Bäuer has published "Philosophical Essays on Subjects of Education and Morals;" in which important and useful truths are established and illustrated with great clearness of ideas, and energy of argumentation. The mode of education which the author prefers, is one combining together the advantages both of the public and private systems.

At the head of such German productions as belong to Jurisprudence, Government, and Political Economy, we have to announce a translation from the Greek of "Aristotle's Politics and Fragments, by J. G. Schlosser, Part I," published at Königsburg. This work, considered as a version, is executed in a very respectable manner; and it is accompanied with prolegomena, and notes, which entitle the author to the character of a well-informed and judicious critic. In his politics, Mr. Schlosser is a decided enemy to all antimonarchical systems, and in his philosophy to the principles of the Kantian school.—We have also seen announced, with much commendation of the author for his acuteness, and the originality of his ideas, "an Elementary View of the Metaphysics of Law, or positive Legislation,

Legislation, an Essay on the first Principles of the Law of Nature, by G. S. A. Millin," but without any information respecting the place of its publication.—At Gießen, Dr. C. Grolman has published "the Principles of Criminal Jurisprudence, with a systematic Exposition of the Criminal Law of Germany." This work the foreign journals state to be executed in a perspicuous and philosophical manner, that evinces the author to possess superior talents.—At Herborn, and Hadamar, the last-mentioned ingenious author has published vol. I, part I, of an useful work, intended to be continued half-yearly, and entitled "Library of Penal Jurisprudence and Legislation." Essays on penal law, reviews of books on the subject, and miscellanies, consisting of ordinances, questions, anecdotes, &c. are to be comprised in this periodical publication.—In jurisprudence, likewise, professor Schmalz, whose character as a writer on subjects of law stands high in Germany, has published, at Königsburg, treatises "on the Pure Law of Nature;" "The Natural Law of States;" "The Natural Law of Families;" and "the Natural Ecclesiastical Law."—M. H. Stephani, also, in his "Outlines of Jurisprudence, or what is properly called the Law of Nature," in his "Outlines of the Law of Society," and in his "Remarks on Kant's Metaphysical Elements of Jurisprudence," has contributed to the elucidation of this branch of literature. And those authors have had numerous fellow-labourers. Among others, we may mention professor Hoffbauer, in his "Enquiries into the most important Subjects relative to the Law of Nature;" professor J. A. Fleuerbach, in his "Philosophic-juridical Enquiry

into the Nature of the Crime called High Treason;" and M. G. A. Kleinmarod, in his "Essays relative to Criminal Law, and Criminal Proceedings."—At Halle, professor J. G. E. Maafs has published an elegant and instructive work, under the form of a connected series of essays, and entitled "on Rights and Obligations in general, and those of Civil Society in particular."—At Leipzig, an anonymous author has published "Heteroclitical Ideas on the natural Boundaries of the European States, as the Foundation of a perpetual Peace." This work appears designed to be a counterpart to professor Kant's celebrated treatise, noticed in our Register for the year 1795, and is employed in demonstrating, that the chains of mountains are the strongest walls of defence to any country, and that according to the situation of these most of the European states ought to be differently divided. But were the author's plan put in execution, we fear that the reign of perpetual peace would not be accelerated by such a change.—At the same place has been sold another work, by an anonymous author, which appears to have been printed privately, and is entitled "What important Events, and what additional Gain in Human and Civil Happiness, have we to expect in the next Century?" The author of this work, whose abilities are respectable, and whose philanthropy is highly to be commended, entertains very sanguine expectations respecting the approaching state of the world. His imagination has drawn a picture of the advances speedily to be made in physical, intellectual, moral, and political improvement, as pleasing as the poets' golden age.—To the articles already enumerated, we can

only add the titles of the following :

"An Address to Frederic William III. King of Prussia, on the Day of his Ascension to the Throne, by M. Gens," published at Berlin; "Reflections on Luxury, the Taxations of Luxury, and their Object, principally in a political and statistical View, by Dr. Dorn;" "Memoirs on the Commerce of Russia, &c. by W. C. Friebe, vol. II," published at Gotha; and "J. G. Büsch's Additions to his Theoretico-practical View of Commerce, in its various Branches," in two volumes, published at Hamburg. Did our limits permit us, we could swell our catalogue with the titles of numerous articles, on politics, commerce, manufactures, &c.; several of which are on a similar plan with *Nicholson's Journal*, and the *Repertory of Arts and Manufactures*: but we must proceed to notice the principal articles under the head of *Mathematics*, *Natural Philosophy*, &c.

In this department, the first work which calls for our notice is part I. of "the complete Elements of Geometry, according to Le Gendre, Simpson, Van Swinden, Gregorius, St. Vincentio, &c." by professor L. W. Gildert, published at Halle. On this work the foreign reviewers bestow high commendation, on account of the industry and judgment which the author has discovered, in collecting, discriminating, and combining the most valuable parts of the labours of preceding geometers, and in adopting many new modes of demonstration, which tend to facilitate the acquisition of the science.—At Leipzig, Frankfurt, and other places, M. G. Vega has published "Logarithmical and Trigonometrical Tables, together with other Tables and Exemplifications, adapted to practical Mathematics," in two volumes 4to.

These volumes are said to reflect great honour on the industry and accuracy of the author, and to contain a rich treasure of mathematical knowledge.—In the same places the collector may meet with useful "Tables, showing the different courses of exchange, together with instructions and explanations how to make use of them, by A. Craighelm."—At Leipzig also, M. G. F. Hinderberg is publishing, in numbers, "a Magazine for pure and practical Mathematics," in which, among other contributions, he is assisted by the labours of Hennert, Klügel, Huzengiger, Kautner, Fischer, Rothe, and Lüdicke. We cannot particularise all the other articles, the productions of individuals or of united bodies, which manifest the attention paid by the Germans to the study of pure mathematics.—At Berlin, M. Bode has published his valuable "Astronomical Ephemeris for the Year 1800," which contains the Jewish and Turkish, in addition to the Christian, calendar.—At the same place, that celebrated and industrious astronomer has published a "Collection of Astronomical Essays, Observations, and Accounts," being the third supplementary volume to his astronomical annals. To this volume M. von Zach has been a principal contributor. Among the articles of astronomical news, the account of the behaviour of Buonaparte towards Oriani, and the other professors of Milan, is not the least interesting.—At Königsburgh, professor Kant has published a new and improved edition of his "General History of Nature, and Theory of the Heavens; or, an Essay on the Constitution and Mechanical Origin of the Fabric of the World, according to the Principles of Newton."

—At Jena, professor J. C. Fischer has published "Elements of Natural Philosophy, in its Mathematical and Chemical Parts," in which he has compressed, in a judicious and pleasing manner, all the late discoveries in chemistry. His attempt to illustrate them by introducing the metaphysical theory of Kant, has not added to the value of his work.—At Berlin, professor D. L. Bourguet has published a work, entitled "Outlines of Natural Philosophy," which is represented to be an excellent compendium for students.—At Halle, professor F. C. A. Gren has published a new edition of his "Outlines of Physical Science." On this edition so much labour has been bestowed by the author, that it wears the appearance of a new work, and may be recommended as containing a complete synopsis of the latest discoveries in physics.—At Weimar, M. J. G. Hoppenstack has published interesting "Observations on the Mines of Spain." In this work the history of those mines, from the earliest times, is detailed, together with an account of their present produce. The author has also described such places where mines of different metals and minerals may be advantageously worked, not having yet been sufficiently examined by the miners. What he has written respecting the mercurial mines of Almaden is particularly deserving of notice.—At Breslau, M. L. de Buch has published "an Attempt to exhibit an accurate Mineralogical Description of Landeck, and its Environs," which does credit to the author's talents as an able and diligent mineralogist. M. Buch is a distinguished pupil of Werner.—At Leipzig, professor Kurt Sprengel has published the First part of a work which, from

the union of classical erudition and science displayed in it, is deserving of approbation and encouragement. It is entitled "*Antiquitates Botanice Specimen primum, &c.*" and is intended to assert in the plants mentioned in several passages of the ancients.—At Nuremberg, professor J. J. Romer has published three fasciculi of a botanical work, which, as far as the author has proceeded, consists of well-executed engravings, and accurate descriptions. Its title is "*Flora Europæa.*" The author's plan, however, is so extensive, that a long period must elapse before it can be completed.—At Frankfurt, M. Jac. Sturm has published the first number of part II. of his uncommonly elegant, and, in point of description and delineation, faithful and accurate work, entitled "*Flora Germanica.*" This number contains the class cryptogamia, in sixteen copper-plates, and an equal number of leaves of letter-press.—At Hanover, M. J. Christ. Wendland has published four numbers of "*Sertum Hanoverianum, seu Plantæ rarioræ quæ in Hortis Regiis Hanoveræ Vicinis coluntur.*" These numbers contain twenty-four folio plates, accurately delineated, and beautifully coloured, accompanied with proper descriptions.—At Nuremberg, professor E. J. C. Eber has commenced the publication of a curious and elegant work, of a similar nature with Mr. Stackhouse's "*Nereis Britannica,*" and entitled "*Icones Fucorum cum Characteribus systematicis, synonymis Auctorum, et Descriptionibus novarum Specierum.*" The first number contains twenty-four plates, accompanied with descriptions, which are less satisfactory than those of our countryman.—At Gotha, the second volume has

appeared of the following important and beautiful work, on which the author has bestowed uncommon attention: "*Muscologia repositum. Analysis, Historia, et Descriptio methodica omnium Muscorum Frondosorum hucusque cognitorum, ad Normam Hedwigii, a S. E. Bridel. Cum Tabulis Aëneis.*" In order to render this history of mosses as perfect as was in his power, the author undertook a journey to Paris, where he was permitted to inspect the famous Herbarium of Haller, deposited in the national institute, and where he engaged the assistance of that naturalist's botanical amanuensis. — At Leipzig, M. G. H. Perfoon has published two valuable treatises on Mushrooms, of which the arrangement is clear and comprehensive, and the drawings neatly executed and well coloured. The first is entitled "*Commentatio de Fungis Clavæformibus, Sistens Specierum, huc usque notarum, Descriptiones, cum differentiis Specificis, &c.*;" and the second, "*Tentamen Dispositionis methodicæ Fungorum in Classes, Ordines, Genera, et Familias, &c.*" — Of the following publications we can only insert the titles: "*Herbarium Mauritianum, &c.*; or an account of the Plants of the Mauritius, by P. R. Willemet, with a Preface, by A. L. Millin," published at Leipzig; "*Botanical Observations, with some new Genera and Species, by J. Christ. Wendland, Superintendent of the royal Electoral Gardens at Hanover,*" published at Hanover; "*Botanical Epitome for the use of German Amateurs of Botany in general, and Horticulturists, Apothecaries, and Economists in particular, by J. F. W. Koch,*" published at Leipzig; "*A concise and popular natural History of foreign*

and native Plants, by M. T. M. Bechstein," in two volumes, published at the same place; "*The Botanical Dictionary, or an Attempt to explain the principal Ideas and technical Terms in Botany, by Dr. M. B. Borkhausen,*" in two volumes, published at Frankfort; continuations of "*The Botanical Manual, by M. C. Schkur,*" and of the "*Annals of Botany, by Dr. Paulus Ufferi,*" published at Leipzig; "*A Foundation for a future Zoonomia,*" published at Jena; the "*Journal for the Interests of Surgery, Midwifery, and Medical Jurisprudence, by J. C. Loder,*" published at the same place; "*New Repository for Midwifery, and the Diseases of Children, &c. by J. Christ. Stock, M. D.*" vol. I. part I. published at Jena; the "*Journal for improving the Practice of Medicine and Surgery, by C. W. Hufeland,*" published at the same place; "*Miscellaneous Chirurgico-practical Cautions, for beginning Practitioners in Surgery, by J. C. Jager,*" vol. V. published at Frankfort; "*On the Knowledge and Cure of Fevers, by J. C. Reil, M. D.*" published at Halle; "*Outlines of a System of Nosology, by W. G. Ploucquet, M. D.*" published at Leipzig; "*On the Consultations of Physicians at the Patient's Bed, and their relative Duties in general, by J. Stieglitz, M. D.,*" published at the same place; "*The Examination of the Brunonian System of Medicine by the Test of Experience, at the Bed-side of Patients, by A. F. Marcus, M. D.*" published at Nuremberg; "*An Enquiry concerning the Origin of Diseases, or an Introduction to the Theory of Medicine, by A. Roschlaub,*" part I. published at Frankfort; and "*What has modern Medicine gained from the Endeavours*

of some natural Philosophers and Physicians, within these fifty Years, with respect to the Application of Electricity to Diseases on solid Principles? answered, &c." by Father Maximus Imhoff, published at Munich.

Among the publications in Germany, and the Austrian dominions, under the head of History, Geography, and Biography, we find a work which presents historians with a collection of curious and useful documents. It is entitled "*Scriptores Regum Hungaricorum minores, hactenus inediti, synchronis aut proximæ ævæ, &c.*" M. G. Kovatschich, Tom. I. *Vad Comitum Franc. de Paula Balassa Gyarmath. Præmittitur Ep. ad Com. Geo. Banffy, Transilvaniæ Gub. qua Diaria de variis Rebus Hung. div. Aust. conscripta Serie Chronologica præsententur.*" Its contents are, accounts of the negotiations of ambassadors or plenipotentiaries; letters; narratives of particular actions and events; journals of different diets, &c. — At Jena, professor C. L. Woltmann has published two volumes of "*Outlines of the ancient History of Man,*" on which the foreign reviewers bestow high commendation. They speak of it as a work of a man who thinks for himself; who has contemplated the history of past ages with a bold and philosophic eye, neither dimmed by ancient prejudice, nor dazzled by modern fancies; and they recommend it to every lover of history, not only on account of the information and amusement which it affords, but because it is calculated, in a peculiarly happy manner, to lead the reader to new reflections and speculations. — At Gotha, professor J. G. Galletti has published parts I. and II. of "*an Epitome of universal History, equally adapt-*

ed for Instruction and Amusement;" which is a very valuable elementary work. — The same author has also published, at the same place, "*Elements of History, calculated for Schools,*" judiciously and pleasingly adapted to the capacities of young persons. — At Leipzig, and other places, Schiller, the celebrated dramatist, has published "*An Historico-genealogical Almanack, for the Year 1798,*" which we introduce in this place on account of its containing a concise and masterly sketch of the history of Germany, from the abdication of the emperor Charles V. to the reign of Francis II; or, from the reformation of Luther, and the subsequent establishment of religious liberty in Germany, down to the present time. — At Berlin, a work has appeared, entitled "*The free State of North America described,*" by D. von Bülow," in two volumes. This work is the production of an able, but at the same time one of the most prejudiced and partial writers that ever assumed the historian or traveller's pen. His grand object is, if possible, to cure his countrymen, and Europeans in general, of their passion for emigrating to America. For this end he has given the most unfavourable picture of that country, and its inhabitants, that the most sour and gloomy satirist could easily draw. The latter are, in his estimation, the natural result of their unfortunate descent, of their unwholesome country, and of their unfavourable circumstances; not that regenerated, simple, innocent, virtuous nation of republicans which in Europe they are by many deemed. And for correcting their vices, for ennobling the American nation, and rendering it happy, he recommends that wholesome institutions should, for

for a time, be enforced on them by despotic power.—At Warsaw (now belonging to a German power, although not itself in Germany) M. Sirla has published “an historical, statistical, and geographical Description of (the now annihilated Kingdom of) Poland,” illustrated with a map and other engravings. This work contains a variety of interesting particulars, especially relating to those parts of Poland which were seized by Russia and Prussia, from which the reader may receive both information and entertainment.—At Pest, professor Mart. Schwardtner has published “Statistics of the Kingdom of Hungary,” in which we are presented with much valuable and curious information relative to the state of the country, its constitution, and the administration of its government. Of the evidence which it affords of the author’s merits as a writer, as well as a philosophic historian, the foreign journalists express themselves in strong terms, and remark, that it is long since Hungarian literature could boast a work like the present.—At Leipzig has appeared “a description of the Tribes which inhabit the Mountainous Parts of Switzerland, by J. Gottf. Ebel, M. D. vol. I. containing the canton of Appenzell.” In order to obtain the materials for this very interesting and entertaining production, Dr. Ebel seems to have been indefatigable in his inquiries, as well as exceedingly cautious not to admit any information that was not founded on the best authorities. And we can assure our readers, that notwithstanding the numerous accounts which have already been published of that extraordinary country and its inhabitants, his description will be found to contain much original and high-

ly curious matter.—At Hamburg, M. P. H. Normann has published three parts of “a Geographico-statistical View of Switzerland,” which, as the German reviewers inform us, is considered to be classical in Switzerland itself. The author intends this work to constitute a part of a more extensive undertaking, which is to comprise the whole of Europe.—At Magdeburg, M. H. Lehmann has published the first volume of “a geographical, statistical, and historical Account of the Republic of the Grisons,” which is represented to be, without question, the best book that has been written on the subject, and to abound in much new information.—At the same place, the same author has published “The Country of the Valteline, with respect to its political and geographical Situation.” This treatise will supply the reader with many desirable particulars relative to the state of that country, and the internal troubles which have prevailed in it from the year 1787 to the year 1797.—At Berlin, M. L. Krug has published five volumes of an extensive, laborious, and well executed undertaking, entitled “Topographical, statistical, and geographical Dictionary of all the Prussian States,” containing a description of the provinces, districts, towns, bailiwicks, market-towns, villages, estates, rivers, lakes, mountains, &c.; and at the same place, M. F. Hersberg has published an useful “Geographical and statistical Sketch of South and New Prussia, together with the Part of Cracow, now united to Silesia, and the Cities of Dantzic and Thorn.”—At the same place, likewise, and at Leipzig, the following useful elementary works have appeared: “An Introduction to Mathematic-

tical and Physical Geography, Part I. with two Maps by Stolzmann;" a "Manual of a general Physical Geography, for the Use of Schools and Academies, by P. Pleßmann;" "Elements of Geography for Beginners, by F. P. Wilton;" and the "Geographical Manual, being a Supplement to the Elementary Treatise, by Seiler"—At Leipzig, Dr. W. C. L. Ziegler has published a "Sketch of a Theological History of the Constitution of the Church in the first Six Centuries." On this work the German critics remark, that the author, in giving a general view of the progress of ecclesiastical government during the period mentioned in the title, without entering into minute particulars, displays an intimate acquaintance with his subject; and that much that is just, as well as new, will be found in his manner of treating it.—At Gottingen, professor Schlözer has published a valuable treatise, entitled "Critical and historical Disquisitions in Leisure Hours." This work consists of three interesting articles: 1. *Originale Ottomanicæ*, or an inquiry into the origin of the Osmanian history; 2. proofs, that the Mongols have been the inventors of paper-money in the thirteenth century; 3. an introduction to the knowledge of the political history of Asia.—At the same place, M. J. C. Gatterer has published his "Outline of Diplomats, illustrated with twelve Plates," which will be highly acceptable to those who wish to have a general view of the learned author's theory on the subject of ancient records and documents.—At Hanover, M. G. F. Palm has published the 3d volume of his "Lives of eminent Men," on which the foreign journals bestow much commendation. It con-

tains those of Gustavus Vasa, Luther, Menzikoff, T. Massaniello, Ch. Cr. J. Agricola, St. Ansgarius, J. J. Barthelemy, Haller, Linnæus, Boileau Despreaux, and Handel.—At Frankfort, M. V. Mitterberg has published "Memoirs of great and meritorious Statesmen, &c." which are chiefly employed in appreciating the merits of distinguished public characters who flourished in Germany during the last century.—At Gotha, M. Porthes has published the second volume of his "Necrologist, containing Accounts of the Lives of remarkable Germans who have died in the current Year." This volume contains biographies of eminent characters who died in 1797, and, among others, that of the celebrated count Hertzberg, late minister of state to the king of Prussia.—At Berlin, M. J. F. Zöcher has published "Travels through Pomerania," illustrated with a number of engravings. This volume presents the reader with a well-written description of a part of Germany but little known to travellers, including many interesting particulars relating to the cultivation and productions of the country, and those manufactures which have been carried on to any degree of perfection. It, likewise, offers a pleasing picture of the character and manners of the inhabitants, and is enlivened by numerous entertaining anecdotes.—At Hamburg, the celebrated general Dumouriez has published a translation from the German, in two volumes, of "Fragments respecting Paris, by Dr. F. J. Laurent Meyer." Dr. Meyer, in company with M. Schmeißer, a celebrated chemist, visited Paris in 1796, and continued there from the end of March to the beginning of July. In these volumes he has given us the result

of

his observations and inquiries during his excursion, and his stay in the metropolis of the French republic. And it must be acknowledged, that they contain the most complete, and, as far as we are able to judge, the most impartial account of that city, its institutions, manufactures, diversions, manners, &c. that has appeared since the new order of things has taken place. They contain, likewise, much interesting matter relative to the French legislative proceedings, the meetings of the national institute of arts and sciences, the state of agriculture in the country, and its effects upon the numerous peasantry, and a variety of characteristic and entertaining anecdotes.

The remaining German productions of the year, which call for our notice, belong to the department of classical, critical, and miscellaneous literature. In this list we find "*Xenophontis Memorabilia Socratis, Græce*," published at Göttingen. This is a new and improved publication of M. Stroth's edition of the *Memorabilia*, by M. Ettlinger, who has carefully corrected the text of Ernesti, which M. Stroth had almost literally copied, according to the latest improvements by M. M. Zeure, Schneider, Schutze, and Weiske.—The next article which we have to introduce was published at Kiel, in Danish Holstein, and was overlooked by us when announcing the literary productions in the dominions subject to the crown of Denmark. Its title is, "*Hercules furens. Specimen novæ recentioris Træcædiæ L. Annaei Senecæ. Auctore Torkillo Baden*." This edition of the tragedy before us contains many essential improvements of the labours of former critics, and leads us to hope much from the

author's industry and judgment in editing the other tragedies of Seneca. Besides consulting seventeen MSS. never before collated, M. Baden examined some of the first printed editions of the original, in the royal library at Copenhagen, and compared both with the text of Gronovius, which he has revised with great care and attention.—At Nuremberg, M. J. Adam Goetz has published, with various readings, "*Theophrasti Chærares, &c.*" with unpublished additions taken from a MS. in the Vatican of the 14th century, by professor J. Ph. Siebenkees. The MS. above mentioned gives us two chapters of Theophrastus that are altogether new, and considerable additions, besides various amended readings, to what had before been published by Camolius and Marcard Freher. To the late professor Siebenkees much obligation is due from the learned world, for the pains which he took to decypher it, and to lay its contents before the public.—At Leipzig, professor C. T. G. Schöenemann has published the second volume of his valuable work, entitled "*Bibliotheca historico-literaria Patrum Latinorum, a Tertulliano principe usque ad Gregorium mag. et Isidorum Hispal. ad Bibl. Fab. Lat. accommodata*." This work throws considerable light on the writings of the different Latin fathers, and greatly assists the reader in distinguishing between such as are genuine and such as are spurious. It supplies him, likewise, with a judicious appreciation of the comparative merits of the different editions, as well as notices of the improvements which have from time to time been made in them.—At the same place, M. C. F. Böhme has published a translation of one

of the Tusculan questions, entitled "Cicero's Treatise on the Sufficiency of Virtue to Happiness," which is represented to be a faithful version, and completely to possess the spirit of the original.—At Munich, M. J. Spitzbergen has published a poetical translation of "Virgil's Æneid." On this work, likewise, the foreign reviewers bestow much praise for its fidelity, while they convict it of several inaccuracies in point of verification.—Of the following German versions of ancient classical authors, published at different places, they speak in less favourable terms: "Hesiod's Poems, &c. by J. C. Schutze;" "M. T. Cicero's Dialogue on Friendship, with Remarks, &c. by J. A. Ehling;" "M. Accii Plauti Comœdia Capiteivi, translated and illustrated by Dr. A. C. Borheck;" and "the Epic Poems of Publius Ovidius Naso, translated into Iambic verses, and accompanied with Illustrations, by G. F. W. Tayme."—At Leipzig, M. H. J. Reichard has published "a grammatico-theological Essay on the Execution of a genuine Latin Version of the New Testament, to which are added some Specimens." M. Reichard wishes for such a version of the New Testament, as would have been acknowledged to be good Latin in the age of Augustus. His observations on the requisites for such an object, and his specimens, afford sufficient evidence of his critical skill, and of his classical proficiency and taste.—At Frankfort on the Oder, professor J. G. Schneider has published "a critical Dictionary of the Greek and German Languages, to be used in reading the Greek profane Authors," volume I. Of this work the foreign journals speak in high terms of praise. The principal at-

tention of the author, a very respectable veteran in Greek literature, has been directed to etymology, analogy, and the general and particular derivation of words.—"The complete Greek Grammar for Schools and Academies, by A. F. Bernhardt," published at Berlin, the same authorities pronounce to be the most useful elementary treatise of the kind, of which the German schools can boast.—At the same place, the marquis de Boufflers has published "a Discourse on Literature, delivered to the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres." This is a well-written, polished essay, in which the different branches of literature are characterised with distinctness, and a zealous attachment to the study of them ably vindicated. In the latter part of his work, the author defends men of letters against the reproaches frequently cast on them, of inutility, conceit, flattery, &c. in a manner that will secure to him their favourable suffrage.—At the same place, professor Kerit has published a treatise entitled "My small Writings, &c." containing dissertations on the end of all things, the influence of the moon on the weather, and the absurdity of a common phrase, "it is good in theory, but not in practice;" and another entitled "an Idea of what universal History might become in the Hands of a Cosmopolite." The principal object of the latter is to urge future historians to keep uniformly in view the interests of the whole human race; to dwell on those facts and institutions which have favoured the intercivilisation of nations; and to suffer those actions to be lost to memory, which are lost to the progress of the whole towards perfection.—At Weimar, M. C. A. Böttinger has published a second part

part of his first volume of "Grecian Paintings on Vases, with archaeological and artificial Illustrations of the original Prints." In our last year's Register, we apprised our readers of the nature and value of this work, which is deserving of the extensive patronage that it has received on the continent.—We can only insert the titles of the following: "The Works of C. M. Wieland, complete volumes XXIV—XXX. both inclusive," published at Leipzig; a splendid edition of "Klopstock's Works," volumes I and II. containing his odes, published at the same place; "G. E. Lessing's Works on Philology, Literature, Antiquities, and the Arts, from the Collection of his Works," volume I. published at Berlin; "Moral Pictures by Aug. Hennings," volume I. published at New Strenitz; "London and Paris, a periodical Publication, with plain and coloured Caricatures, Delineations, Plans, &c." numbers I—III. published at Weimar; "Short Essays on different Subjects, by E. F. Klein," published at Leipzig; "the Elementary Code of Law for all Men, by C. Sommers," published at the same place; "On the most essential Principles of Education, according to the Principles of Kant, by professor K. Weiler," published at Ratibon; "A Complete System of the Art of Swimming, translated from the Italian of Bernardi, and illustrated with Remarks by Professor Kries," in two volumes, published at Weimar; "Lectures on the History of German Poetry," volume I. by professor Müller of Kiel, published at Hamburg; "The Book of Job," translated into German rhyme, by S. C. Pappe, with a preface by Eichhorn, published at Leipzig; an improved translation of "William

Shakspeare's Plays," by J. I. Eschenberg; volume I. published at Frankfort; "The Colonists of all Complexions, by M. de Texier," in three volumes, published at Berlin; "William Meister's Apprenticeship, a Romance, edited by Goethe," in four volumes, published at the same place; and "Rash Vows, or Enthusiasm, by Madame de Genlis," in two volumes, published at Hamburg.

With respect to the literary productions of Switzerland, and of Italy, we have but few articles to insert in our catalogue for the year 1798.—At Geneva, Dr. Peschier has published "An Enquiry into the Irritability of Animals and Plants," which is a very interesting and important work, containing the result of numerous experiments made to determine the analogy of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The author's conclusions are adverse to the opinions of those philosophers, who attribute sensation and perceptibility to plants.—At Lausanne, professor Struve has published "an Analysis of Fossils," in which his scheme is founded on their exterior characters, and resembles that of Werner.—At Zurich, a work has appeared of considerable merit, entitled "Diatrophilus's physical and psychological History of his seven Years Epilepsy," part I. This work is written by an intelligent patient, who relates the history of his recovery from that terrible disease, after being subject to it during the period mentioned in the title, and who offers powerful reasons in favour of the establishment of public institutions for its cure.—Of the "Rapid View of the Overthrow of Switzerland, by an Eye-Witness," we have already given an account when noticing a translation of it from the French, among

among the productions of our domestic press.—At Zurich, Fr. C. Baron Moser has published “a History of the Waldenses, their Fate and Persecution within the last two hundred and fifty Years in general, and their Reception and Settlement in the Duchy of Wirtemberg in particular, from authentic Documents,” accompanied with original papers. This is a valuable and entertaining work, and may properly be considered as a continuation of Leger’s history of that defamed and persecuted, but innocent and respectable sect of christians. Baron Moser estimates the number of Waldenses, now living in the valleys of Piedmont, at thirteen thousand; who are allowed freedom of worship, but debarred many of those common privileges of subjects, which are extended beyond the pale of catholicism, or christianity, even to the despised disciples of Moses.—At the same place, an anonymous author has published a volume of amusing observations, remarks, and political speculations, under the title of “My last Journey to Paris.”

In Italian literature, we have only seen slight notices of the three following publications:—“Memoirs of the Italian Society at Milan, &c.” published in that city. This volume is said to contain many curious articles, and, among others, interesting observations on the island of Cythera, or in modern language Cerigo, by the Abbé Spallanzani.—At Florence, Dr. F. Chiaranti has published “Observations and Experiments on the gastric Juice, regarded as the Means destined by Nature to render many Substances capable of Absorption.” This work is intended to establish the same conclusions with professor Brera’s thesis, announced in our

last volume.—At Bassano, S. Morelli has published “Dionis Cassii Historiarum Romanarum Fragmenta,” extracted from a MS. in the library of St. Mark, at Venice. To these fragments, which are neither very copious nor important, the editor has added many new readings of some parts of Dio’s history which were before generally known in the learned world.

The first article which we have to announce in French literature, is entitled “Reflections on public Worship, on civil Ceremonies, and national Feasts, by L. M. Reveillere-Lepaux, Member of the national Institute.” This work is written by the most active patron and defender of the theophilanthropic sect, and is peculiarly important and seasonable in the fluctuating state of men’s minds in France, with respect to religious topics. The author ably contends for the necessity of religious dogmas, and religious worship in every nation; while he maintains that those dogmas ought not to be devised and imposed, or that worship regulated by the legislature. He is an enemy to the connexion of pomp with devotion, and asserts that sound politics oppose the permission of displaying pomp in whatever worship. But would not such an opposition be tantamount to a legislative regulation? In civil institutions, and particularly in national festivals, pomp appears to him to be indispensable; and his observations on that subject are written in the genuine Gallic spirit.—“The politics of Aristotle, or the Science of Government, translated from the Greek, by C. Champagne,” in 2 volumes, is said to be a well executed version of that celebrated production, illustrated with useful disquisitions which the translator

has thrown into the form of notes. In his introduction, M. Champagne has given an able analysis of his original. — The treatise “on Republics, or on the best Form of Government, translated from Cicero, and restored from the Fragments and his other Writings, with Notes historical and critical, &c.” is highly praised in the Paris Journals, for the fidelity and elegance of the author’s version, and the learning and ingenuity which he has displayed in restoring the original composition, and in his illustrative notes. Prefixed to it is an interesting dissertation on the origin of the sciences, arts, philosophy, &c. among the Romans. — “The Philosophy of Politics, or general Principles of social Institutions, in which are examined the important Questions of Equality, the general Will, and the Sovereignty of the People, &c.” by F. L. D’Escherney, Count of the Holy Empire,” in two volumes, is the production of an able writer, who with great force and ingenuity controverts the leading principles of the revolutionary school, and endeavours to show the misfüté which has been made of the doctrines of J. J. Rousseau, on the subjects mentioned in the title. This work is also valuable, as a repository of characteristic sketches, and fragments of the speeches of the heads of factions, &c. during the revolutionary scenes in France. — C. E. Lefebure’s “Political and moral Considerations, relative to France, as constituted a Republic,” are written by a zealous, and, at the same time, well-informed and philosophic republican, who suggests a variety of hints on subjects in jurisprudence, as well as political economy, which deserve the notice of his fellow citizens. — The same remark is applicable to the treatise

“on the internal State of the Republic, by Charles Theremin, French citizen, son of a protestant who left France on account of religion, with this motto from chancellor L’Hospital’s speech in the council before Charles IX. : “for my part I shall endeavour to mitigate, and not to inflame.” — “India considered with regard to its Connexion with Europe, by Anquetil du Perron,” in two volumes, belongs more to the department of politics than that of government or political economy. The object of the author is to show, that the English commercial conquests in that country cannot be lasting; and to impress the minds of French statesmen with a conviction of the necessity of forming an alliance with the Mahrattas, before they can entertain just hopes of eradicating the English power. — B. Barrere’s two volumes on “the Liberty of the Seas, or the English Government unmasked,” are to be referred to the same department with the last-mentioned work, and have their subject sufficiently indicated in the title. — The following publication, in three volumes, is important and interesting: “The French Code, or a Collection, in the Order of Affairs, of the Laws of the Republic; formed in consequence of the Labours of the Committee for the Classification of the Laws; accompanied by chronological and alphabetical Tables; published under the Superintendence of the Representatives of the People, Cambaceres and Oudat.”

At the head of the French articles in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, we have to announce the concluding volume of the “Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, for the Year 1790, extracted from the Registers of that Academy.”

Academy." The contents of this volume are, memoirs printed since the month of July 1794, on a variety of subjects in pure and mixed mathematics, and by authors distinguished for their eminence in science. Our limits will not permit us to enter into any particulars concerning them. In the present volume, the historical part, the programmas, &c. are omitted, owing to the political avocations of the late Secretary Condorcet. It is proposed, however, to print, in a separate volume, a series of eloges on deceased members, which will close this important and interesting collection.—The *Theory of Analytical Functions*, containing the Principles of the differential Calculus, divested of all reference to infinitely small or evanescent Quantities, Limits, or Fluxions, and reduced to the algebraical Analysis of finite Quantities, by J. L. La Grange, of the National Institute," is a work of very great importance and value in pure mathematics. For the first time, it may be said clearly and rigorously to establish the principles of the immortal Newton's grand invention. Our mathematical readers are fully apprised of the obligations which the scientific world has long been under to the ingenious and learned author. By the publication before us, those obligations are greatly increased, and the author's honours receive a durable accession.—The "*Reflexions on the Metaphysics of the Calculation of Infinities*, by the Citizen Carnot," evince the accuracy of the author's acquaintance with the theory, as the celebrated military tactics ascribed to him do with the practical application of the mathematical sciences.—The "*Analytical Treatise on the Resistance of Solids, and of Solids of equal Resistance*,"

accompanied with a Series of new Experiments on the specific Force and Elasticity of Oak and Fir," is spoken of in very high terms by the Parisian journalists. They state the analysis to be exact and perspicuous, the historical part full and accurate, and the application of the whole to the purposes of utility judicious and valuable.—The "*Connoissance de Temps, for the Use of Astronomers and Navigators, for the 8th year of the Republic (1800)*," published by the Board of Longitude," besides the usual ephemeris, and valuable communications from different members of the board well known in the annals of science, will be found to contain an important memoir, by M. de la Place, on the secular equations which affect the motions of the apogee and nodes of the lunar orbit.—Of the "*Chemical Annals, or a Collection of Memoirs concerning Chemistry, &c.*" the twenty-third volume has made its appearance during the year 1798. This volume, though not so rich as some of the preceding in original papers, presents us, nevertheless, with the results of a variety of ingenious inquiries and curious experiments, which may prove useful in the improvement of science, and the economical arts. For the most important of them the public are indebted to MM. de la Grange, Proust, Guyton, Berthollet, J. H. Hassenfratz, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, J. A. Chaptal, and Rammboldt.—The "*Chemical Works of Peter Bayen, Member of the National Institute*," in 2 volumes, present us with a variety of analyses, experiments, and observations, which add considerably to our stock of knowledge. The author was sedulous and persevering in his inquiries; exact, faithful, and modest in his reports;

reports; and from what he has written, given occasion for regret that he wrote no more.—The “Elementary Principles of the Natural and Chemical Histories of Mineral Substances, by Mathurin-Jacques Briffon, Member of the National Institute, &c.” is divided into two parts; lithology and metallurgy. It is entitled to praise for distinctness of arrangement, perspicuity of description, and for the great quantity of useful information which is condensed within a narrow compass.—The “New Display of Nature, involving clear and precise Notions, and interesting Details, with regard to every Object with which Mankind ought to be acquainted, by A. F. Chevalignard,” in 2 vols. although not the work of a profound philosopher, may be useful to young persons and general readers. The history of the creation, the heavenly bodies, light and heat, the changes of the seasons, &c. the changes which have taken place on the surface of the earth, and the chief productions of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, are successively the subjects of the author’s disquisitions.—The “Elementary View of the Natural History of Animals, by G. Cuvier, of the National Institute,” is highly commended by the foreign journalists, who state, that it was originally intended for the use of the central schools, but that it deserves the attention of every naturalist for the new observations which it contains, and the deviations from the usual arrangements founded on them.—“The Natural History of Apes, delineated from Nature, by J. B. Audubert, Member of the Society of Natural History,” N^o. I. and II., do greater honour to the author’s abilities as an artist than as a natural historian.

The plates which it contains are said to incomparable for accurate representations of nature, delicacy in the drawing and engraving, and truth of colouring.—“The Natural History of Fish, by Cit. la Cépède,” vol. I. illustrated with twenty-five plates, is written on the same plan as the Natural History of Buffon, to which it is intended as a sequel. The style and manner are the same with those of the author’s well known natural history of serpents and amphibia. A considerable part of the volume is taken up by an elegant and ingenious discourse of the nature of fish, their anatomy, physiology, &c.; which is followed by the nomenclature, and a systematic table. The present volume gives the history of the first twelve kinds of fish, including two new genera, and thirty new species.—“The Principles of Botany, by C. Ventenat,” are said to offer to young readers a perspicuous and precise introduction to an acquaintance with that science.—So, likewise, are “the Elements of the Philosophy of the Botanist, by Joly le Clerc,” in 2 vols.—“The History of European Plants, or Elements of practical Botany &c. according to the Method and Principles of Linné, &c. by C. Gilibert,” in 2 vols. we have seen announced, but have not met with any account of its character.—We have also seen announced four fasciculi of “Flora Atlantica, sive Historia Plantarum quæ in Atlantæ, Agro Tunesiano et Algeriensi crescunt, Autore Renato Desfontaines, Inst. Nat. Scien. Gal. Socio, &c.” On this work considerable praise is bestowed, for the attention and accuracy with which the author has investigated the characters of each species of plants cultivated in Barbary, for pleasure or utility; the perspicuity

perspicuity of his descriptions; and the importance of his accompanying remarks and observations. — During the year 1798, likewise, M. Carmoy has published “an Essay on the electrical Motion of the Fluids in the Capillary Vessels;” MM. Parmentier and Deyeux, an elaborate “Essay on the Blood;” C. Laurent, “a Chemical Memoir on the Tetanus of the Wounded;” C. L. Dumas, “a methodical System of the Nomenclature and Classification of the Muscles of the Human Body;” professor Pinel, a treatise “on philosophical Nosography, or Nosology;” and C. Boyveau, “an Essay on the physical and moral Disorders of Women.”

In the list of French publications belonging to the departments of History, Biography and Travels, we meet with “An Essay on the History of the Human Species, by C. A. Walckenaer.” The object of this work is to produce a rational and philosophical history of man, from his incipient state, through the different degrees of progressive civilisation, to the present stage of society, divided into different periods; and to point out the nature of that period to which we are immediately approaching. It displays much information and good sense, but not unmixed with fanciful speculation. The greater part of his readers may receive profit from the author’s labours; and the more informed will be amused by them. — The “Summary of the History of the Hebrews, from the time of Moses to the Reduction of Jerusalem by the Romans, by C. Mentelle,” contains only those parts of the Jewish history, against the credibility of which unbelievers in divine revelation have not thought fit to enter their protest.

The miraculous incidents he has chosen to omit, or, when received, to explain them from natural causes. — “The History of those celebrated Revolutions which have changed the Face of Empires,” in 3 vols, begins with the conspiracy of Arbaces against Sardanapalus, and ends with the revolution of France. It is a selection of the most striking events in universal history, of which the narration is drawn up in a pleasing and interesting style. — C. Ballard’s “Abridgment of the History of Republics, ancient and modern,” in 4 vols. is conducted with judgment, and written, like the last-mentioned article, in easy and pleasing language. It delineates the origin, organisation, and, in the instances in which they no longer exist, the causes of the decline and fall of those forms of government, commencing with the Grecian republics, and concluding with an impartial account of the French revolution. — “The History of the French Republic, from the Dissolution of the National Convention to the conclusion of Peace between France and the Emperor, by Ant. Fantin-Des-odoards,” in 2 vols. is a proper continuation of the author’s “Philosophical History of the French Revolution,” noticed in our Register for the year 1796, and deserving of the same favourable reception which has been paid to that work. It is a repository of many important documents which we have not seen in the labours of other annalists, and abounds in instruction and amusement. — The same author has published “the Reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI.” in 5 vols; which work is highly commended in the foreign reviews, for its philosophical spirit, impartiality, and easy pleasing style, and for the curious details

and interesting particulars with which it furnishes us.—The tenth, eleventh, and twelfth volumes of “a History of the Revolution in France, by two Friends to Liberty,” are the continuation of a minute, impartial, and well-written work, noticed in our Registers for the years 1796 and 1797.—“The Campaigns of the French during the Revolution,” by A. Liger,” volume I. is the commencement of a well-digested and well-authenticated work, which will prove of material service to future historians.—So, likewise, will the “History of the Siege of Lyons, of the Events which preceded, and the Disorders which followed, and of their causes, secret, general, and particular, from 1789 to 1796,” in 2 vols; and the “History of the Prisons of Paris and the Departments, containing valuable Memoirs, &c. by C. Nougant,” in 4 vols.—The “Enquiry into the systematic and precise Geography of the Ancients, tending to illustrate the History of ancient Geography, by Gosselin, Member of the National Institute,” in 2 vols. constitutes a work of very considerable merit, which richly deserves the attention of the learned world. It affords ample evidence of the author’s erudition, persevering industry, and accurate investigation, and offers desirable aid to those who wish to trace the progress of the ancient navigators and travellers through the different regions which they visited, and in ascertaining the limits of their discoveries.—The “Memoir on the three Departments of Corcyra, Ithaca, and the Iguan Sea, by the Citizens Darbois, Brothers, Officers of the Staff of the Army of Italy,” contains a well-written historical detail of those conquests, a particular description of their present

state and condition, and judicious remarks on their importance to any country that may retain the possession of them.—The “Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities, by P. Barral,” in 2 vols. is an abridgment of the great dictionary of Pausanias, executed with judgment, and useful to classical as well as curious readers.—The “Essay on the Antiquities of the North, and the ancient Northern Languages, by Charles Pongson,” contains most curious and valuable information, and presents us with desirable illustrations of writers, with whose works the learned of modern times are but little acquainted. He appears to have engaged in his researches, *cor amore*; and, from the specimen before us, we have reason to conclude that his future labours will throw considerable light on the manners, the superstition, and the literature of the ancient inhabitants of the north.—Among articles belonging to antiquities, likewise, the French press has produced “Gallic Origins, or those of the ancient Nations of Europe, derived from their real Source, being Researches on the Tongue, Origin, and Antiquities of the Celto-Britons of Armorica, by Latour D’Auvergne;” “The ancient Gallery, or a Collection of the chief ancient Works of Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting,” No. I. folio, with eight prints, representing the Parthenon, or temple of Minerva at Athens;” “The Museum at Florence, or a Collection of Gems, Statues, Medals, &c. in the Gallery of the Grand-duke of Tuscany, drawn and engraved by V. A. David, with explanations by Mulot,” vol. IV.; “The Museum of French Monuments, or a chronological Collection of Carvings, Statues in Marble and in bronze, Laid Relievos, and Tombs

Tombs of celebrated Men and Women, which may serve to illustrate the History of France, by A. Lacroix," part I. containing Egyptian and Grecian monuments, chiefly brought to France in the reign of Francis I.; the tenth volume of "The Antiquities of Herculaneum," by David; and "A Collection of the Costume, civil and military, of ancient Nations, with their Furniture, and the interior Decoration of their Houses, taken from ancient Monuments, and accompanied with a Description derived from ancient Authors, drawn, engraved, and illustrated by N. X. Willemin," part I. in small folio. — "The History of those illustrious Men who have done honour to France by their talents and virtues, arranged according to the days of the year," in 4 vols. consists, chiefly, of biographical notices of modern characters, in public and private life, deserving of being held out as examples to the rising generation. The subjects are judiciously selected; and the manner in which they are executed is creditable to the literary abilities of the compiler. — "The Life of Voltaire, accompanied with Anecdotes illustrative of his private Hours, by C. Duverney," is represented in the Paris reviews to be more general and more amusing than the biographical treatises either of Deluchet or Condorcet. — "The Life of Lazarus Hoche, General of the Armies of the French Republic, by Alexander Rousselin," in 2 vols. is drawn up with considerable skill; and, from the nature of the celebrated subject, cannot fail greatly to interest the reader. There was no need, however, for the author, in order to exact the merits of his hero, to detract from those of Pichegru. The second volume

consists wholly of Hoche's public and private correspondence with government, ministers, generals, &c. — The "Memoirs of Mademoiselle Hypolita Clairon, with Reflections upon the Dramatic Art, written by herself," are highly curious and entertaining in a double point of view. They detail, in a lively and spirited manner, that will gratify readers in general, the particulars in the life of a woman, who, by the united force of genius and application, rose from a very humble situation to that of first actress on the French stage, and whom our Garrick pronounced unrivalled every where; and they contain such an account of her professional studies, and of the precepts necessary to be followed in obtaining perfection in the dramatic art, as will prove interesting to literary readers. — The "Historical Memoirs of Stephanie-Louise de Bourbon-Conti, written by herself," in 2 volumes, relate the singular and affecting adventures of a much-injured illegitimate daughter of the late prince of Conti, whose education was directed by Rousseau, according to the principles laid down in his *Emilius*. Sometimes they are so extraordinary as almost to appear to border on romance; but their truth is confirmed by authentic testimonials. — The "Biographical Sketch of Madame Ritz, Countess of Lichtenau," appears to have been written by a person who possessed genuine information respecting the origin, character, and conduct of that extraordinary woman, whose consequence and influence in the court of the late King of Prussia, are sufficiently known in the regions both of gallantry and of politics. — The new edition of "Travels in Egypt and Nubia, by Fred. Lewis Gordon, with Notes and Additions,

ditions, by L. Langles, Author of the *Manchou-Tartar Alphabet*," superbly printed by Didot, in 3 vols. quarto, and illustrated with 160 engravings, will prove an acceptable present to the amateurs of geography, and to the learned world in general.—The "*Picturesque Tour through Syria, Palestine, Phœnicia, and the Lower Egypt, &c. the original Drawings by Citizen Cassas, &c.*" large folio, No. I. containing six plates, is the commencement of one of the most elegant and magnificent works which has ever issued from the French press, in respect both to typography and the accompanying embellishments. MM. Laporte du Thiel, Le Grand, and Langles, are to revise and digest the narrative part, which is designed to be comprised in three volumes, and to be illustrated with about 330 plates.—Similar to the preceding, in size and execution, is the "*Picturesque Tour through Istria and Dalmatia, the original Drawings by C. Cassas*," No. I.—IV. This work is designed to be comprised in one volume, containing about 60 engravings.—The "*Travels in Guiana and Cayenne, in 1789, and some following years, by L. M. B. Armateur*," abound in valuable and curious information respecting the history, geography, natural history, productions, political and commercial importance, and the manners of the inhabitants of those parts of the continent of South America, which will afford ample gratification to the reader. This work, and Stedman's, noticed in our Register for the year 1796, will be found reciprocally to illustrate and confirm each other in some of the most extraordinary parts of their narratives.—The "*Travels in the Interior of the United States of Ame-*

rica, by M. Ferdinand Bayard," are said by the Parisian journalists to be particularly illustrative of the private life, the occupations and amusements of the people of that country, and of the peculiarities of their different religious sects; and to contain an interesting picture of the manners and religious opinions of the aboriginal inhabitants.—Much praise, likewise, is bestowed by them on "*Travels in England, Scotland, and the Hebrides, chiefly illustrative of Sciences and the Arts, Natural History, and Manners, by B. Faujas St. Fond*," in 2 vols.; "*Philosophical Travels in England and France, in 1790, &c. with an Essay on the History of the Arts in Great Britain, translated from the German, with critical Notes, &c. by Charles Pongrus*;" and, an enlarged edition, in 3 vols. of "*A Picture of modern Spain, by J. Fr. Bourgoing, Minister Plenipotentiary of the French Republic at Madrid*."

The few remaining articles which we have to insert in our catalogue of French publications for the year 1798, belong to the head of classical, polite, and miscellaneous literature. In this number are "*The Letters of Plato, translated from the Greek, by A. J. Dugour, formerly Professor in the College of La Fleche*," on which the French critics bestow the praise of fidelity and elegance; and "*The Idyls of Theocritus, translated from the Greek, by C. Gail*," in 2 vols. quarto, illustrated with plates. This version of the Sicilian poet is said to be the production of one of the most eminent Greek scholars now in France, and not unworthy of the reputation which he has acquired in this branch of literature.—"*The Works of Horace, translated into French Verse, by Peter Daru*,"

Daru," in 2 vols. are stated to offer the reader, in numerous instances, a very inadequate representation of the original.—The "*Phrasologia Anglo-Germanica*, or a Collection of more than 50,000 Phrases selected from the best English Classics, disposed in Alphabetical Order, and faithfully translated into German, by F. W. Hauffner, Professor at the Central School of the Lower Rhinish Department," evinces the great industry of the author in acquiring the English language, and will be of use to English readers in obtaining a knowledge of German. But it would have been more perfect and valuable had it been subjected to the revision of an English scholar. Many expressions which betray a foreign idiom, or which belong only to dictionaries of the vulgar tongue, would in that case have been expunged from it.—"The Travels of Antenor, in Greece and in Asia," in 3 vols. pretendedly translated, by M. Lantier, from a Greek manuscript found among the ruins of Herculaneum, are evidently written in imitation of Barthelémy's Travels of Anacharsis, to which, although not devoid of considerable merit, they are greatly inferior.—"The various Works of John James Barthelémy," in 2 vols. consist, partly of pieces which have already been published and praised for the learning and taste which they display, and partly of new pieces, and fragments, which will be received with pleasure by classical students, and readers in general. They consist of moral treatises, antiquarian investigations, literary criticisms, poems, and miscellaneous papers.—The "*Miscellanées*, extracted from the MSS. of Madame Necker," vol. I. consist of essays, detached thoughts, and sentiments, from the correspond-

ence and journals of the deceased, published by her husband, from which may be derived both instruction and entertainment. Prefixed to them are two characters of madame Necker, one by the editor, and another by M. Thomas, both of which contain much affectionate and warm panegyric.—We have also seen the following publications announced: "*The Works of Mandat Nivernois*," vols. VI. VII, and VIII.; "*The complete Works of Helvetius*," in 14 vols.; "*The Works of Diderot*, published according to his MSS. by J. A. Naigeron, of the National Institute," in 15 vols.; "*Halicarnassus, Priene, Paphos, and Mount Eryx*," falsely pretended to be a posthumous work of the abbé Barthelémy; "*The Works of Felix de Nogaret*," in 2 vols.; "*Spring Mornings, or different Works of Mercier of Compeigne*," in 2 vols.; "*The Plants, a Poem*, by R. R. Castell;" "*The pleasing and moral Works of the Marquis of Pezai*," in 2 vols.; and "*The Little Emigrants, or the Correspondence of some Children—a Work written to forward the Education of Youth*, by Madame de Genlis," in 2 vols.

In Spain, increasing attention appears to be paid to literature in its various branches; but we have been able to obtain little more information concerning the labours of its votaries, than what may be learned from the titles of their productions, from which we select the following: "*Elements of the Veterinary Art, for the Instruction of the Students in the Royal School*, by D. Sigismundo Malats, chief Director of the said School;" "*The modern Practice of Inoculation, with a brief Account of its Origin and present State*, particularly

cularly in Spain, by Dr. Timotes O-Scalan;" "The Practice of Criminal Proceedings deduced from Principles, by D. Juan Alvarez Pofadilla;" "The Criminal Code and Practice, according to the Laws of Spain, by D. Vincente Vizcaino Perez," in 3 vols; "An Historical Summary of the Kingdom of Arragon, from its first Sovereign down to its Union with Castile," in 2 vols; "A History of the Imperial Canal in Arragon, from the Time when the Emperor Charles V. began its Construction, down to the present Time, &c." vol I.; "A Plan of Education, or Exposition of a new Method of studying Languages, Geography, Chronology, History, Mathematics, Philosophy, &c. by D. Juan Antonio Gonzales Canaveras;" "Tracts on Mathematics, composed for the Instruction of the Pupils of the Academy of the Royal Observatory at Madrid, by D. Joseph Radon," in 2 vols; "A faithful and apologetical Account of the Antiquity and Discovery of the Batuefas, a species of Savages living in the Mountains, by B. Thomas Gonzales de Manuel, Presbyter;" "A chronological and genealogical History of the Origin of the Spanish Nobility, of their Antiquity, Classes, and

Distinctions, with the Series of Succession of the principal Families in the Kingdom, &c." in 8 vols. quarto; and "The Works of Sappho, Erinna, Alceus, Simonides, &c. translated from the Greek into Spanish Verse, by D. Joseph, and D. Bernabé Canga Arguelles." To the preceding might be added the titles of a variety of short medical treatises, poems, plays, novels, and entertaining miscellanies.

In Portugal, likewise, laudable efforts are making to banish ignorance and sloth, and to emulate the improvements in other European countries. And in this patriotic undertaking, the members of the Royal Academy at Lisbon, founded in the year 1779, by the Duke de Lafoens, uncle to the present queen, have shown themselves eminently conspicuous. The first volume of their "Memoirs," printed in the year 1797, abounds in curious and valuable papers, relative to Portuguese literature, natural philosophy, natural history, astronomy, and pure mathematics; from the dissemination of which, together with other numerous useful works printed and published under their inspection, a happy change may be fairly augured in the character and manners of the Portuguese.

THE END.

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